DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 469 737 RC 023 742

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TITLE	The Help! Kit: A Resource Guide for Secondary Teachers of Migrant English Language Learners.
INSTITUTION	State Univ. of New York, Oneonta. ESCORT.; SERVE: SouthEastern Regional Vision for Education, Greensboro, NC.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Elementary and Secondary Education (ED), Washington, DC. Office of Migrant Education.; Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	2001-00-00
NOTE	252p.
CONTRACT	SM96009001;ED-01-CO-0015
AVAILABLE FROM	ESCORT, Bugby Hall-Room 305, Oneonta, NY 13820. Tel: 800-451-8058 (Toll Free). For full text: http://www.escort.org/products/secondaryhelpkit.html.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom - Teacher (052)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	College Preparation; *Limited English Speaking; Mexican American Education; *Migrant Education; Parent School Relationship; *Resource Materials; Secondary Education; Student Evaluation; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	Credit Accrual

ABSTRACT

This resource guide aims to provide mainstream teachers with practical, research-based advice on how to teach, evaluate, and nurture their limited-English-proficient (LEP) migrant students. Because migrant students are overwhelmingly Mexican or Mexican American, most examples in the guide focus on this population. The 12 chapters contain the following: (1) introduction and glossary; (2) introductory information on characteristics of migrant students and families, facts about learning a second language, and tips for supporting migrant students; (3) strategies for involving LEP students in the classroom; (4-7) strategies for making language arts, mathematics, social studies, and science comprehensible to the English language learner; (8) ways to make student evaluation both fair and demanding; (9) ways to foster home-school partnerships; (10) the challenge of meeting high school graduation requirements; (11) ways to help students plan for postsecondary education; and (12) technical assistance and resources. Chapters contain references, sample activities, sample lesson plans, checklists, and rubrics. The resource chapter includes organizations/institutions serving linguistic and cultural minorities, additional references, software, online resources for teachers and students, contact information for the 15 regional Comprehensive Centers, and websites for publications and curriculum materials. (SV)

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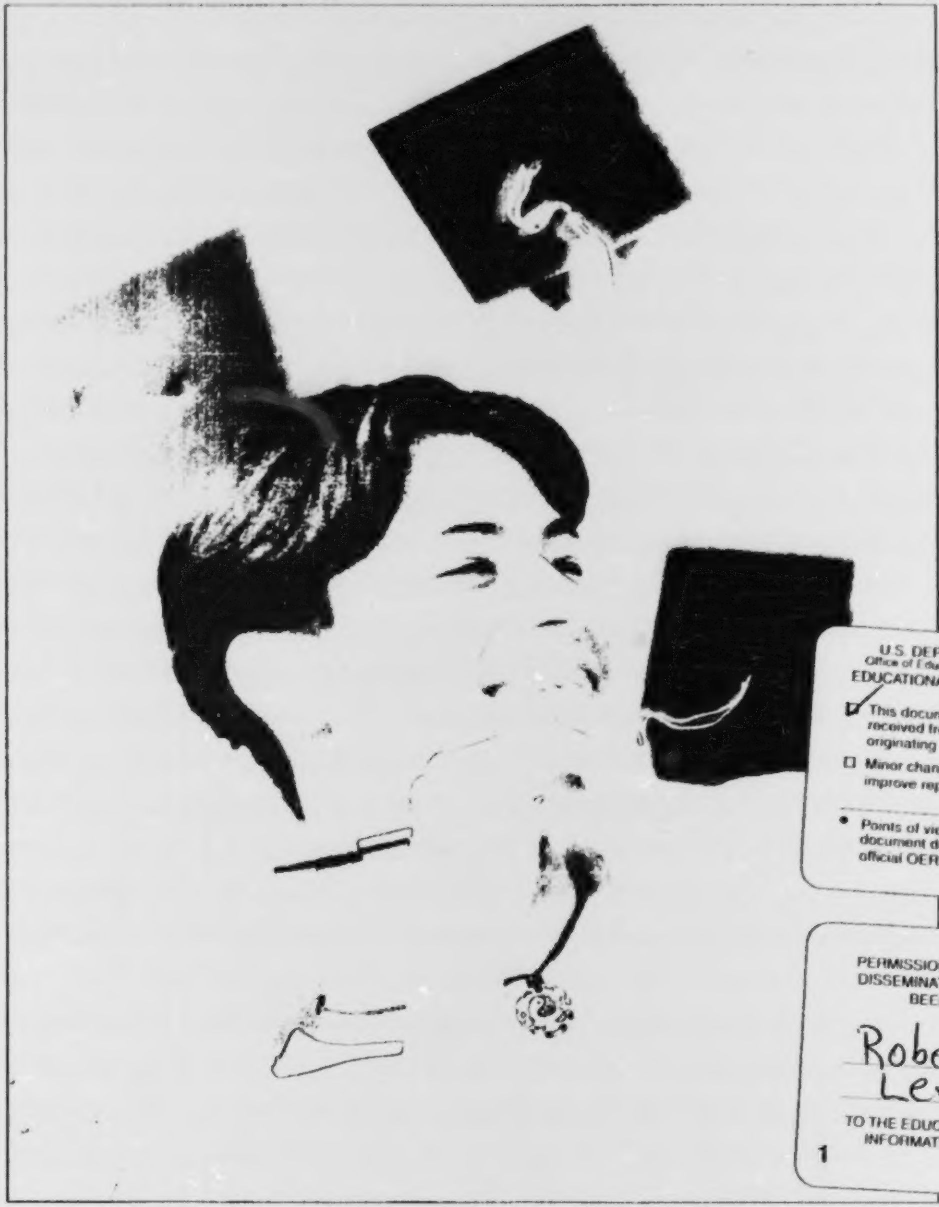
The Help! Kit

A Resource Guide for Secondary Teachers of Migrant English Language Learners



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A Resource Guide for Secondary Teachers of Migrant English Language Learners

Published by

ESCORT

State University of New York at Oneonta

First Printing, 2001

ESCORT, formerly the Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training, located at the State University of New York at Oneonta, is a national resource center dedicated to improving the educational opportunities for migrant children. Based on funding from a variety of sources, ESCORT maintains the National Migrant Education Hotline and also conducts professional and program development activities for SEAs, LEAs, and schools to help improve services to migrant children and other English Language Learners. ESCORT also provides technical and logistical support to the U.S. Office of Migrant Education on a wide variety of interstate coordination activities.

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The project was funded by the U.S. Office of Migrant Education, and the principal author and collaborator was Pamela Wrigley, Senior Education Specialist at ESCORT. The staff at SERVE, a Regional Educational Laboratory serving the southeastern states, was responsible for most of the editing and all of the graphic design and layout for the publication.

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The contents of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views of the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Migrant Education, nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the U.S. Government. This document was produced with funding from the Office of Migrant Education, U.S. Department of Education, under contract number SM96009001 and from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract number ED-01-CO-0015.

Acknowledgments

There are many people who dedicated their time and creative energy to making the secondary *Help! Kit* a reality. It was a team effort and labor of love on many fronts. This resource guide is the sequel to the popular *Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit* for primary teachers that was first produced by a group of migrant educators in Virginia in 1989. Pamela Wrigley, a Senior Education Specialist with ESCORT, made significant contributions to the production of the primary *Help! Kit* and has been the principal author of the secondary version. Pamela has developed a great deal of expertise over the past 15 years that she has worked—in a variety of capacities—with migrant education and ESL programs. This guide came about because so many educators were requesting a *Help! Kit* for middle and high school teachers who have the challenge of teaching demanding content area courses to migrant students with limited English proficiency.

The secondary *Help! Kit* is a compendium of the latest research about best practices in teaching English language learners in content area courses. Special thanks are owed to Kris Anstrom, who is the principal author of a series of subject-specific papers (*Preparing Secondary Education Teachers to Work with English Language Learners*) for the Office of Bilingual and Minority Language Affairs. This series of four papers, in modified form, is the basis for the subject-specific chapters.

Another principal contributor was Bridget McGilvra, who is an Education Specialist with ESCORT and works most of the time in Florida with the Region XIV Comprehensive Center. Because of Bridget's extensive background in working with migrant secondary students in Florida, she contributed her expertise to the sections addressing the unique needs of the students and, more importantly, shared practical strategies that can contribute to increasing their graduation rate.

Thanks are also due to the intrepid group of readers who made their way through the unruly first draft of the *Help! Kit*. They are:

Carolyn Vincent, Research Scientist at RMC Research and the Region III Comprehensive Center, offered many wise and helpful suggestions about organization and resources.

Kris Anstrom of George Washington University provided a wealth of information and assisted greatly with refining the content of the guide.

Gloria Rodriguez, Curriculum Coordinator for the Oyster Bilingual School in Washington, D.C., was particularly helpful in the area of native language literacy and the need to highlight how important a resource it is for English language learners. She offered many suggestions on how to organize and focus the opening chapters.

Beatriz Ceja, Education Program Specialist with the Office of Migrant Education, made a number of strategic contributions to the content and organization of the *Help! Kit* in the spirit of ensuring that it is the best possible resource for secondary educators of migrant students. OME stands firmly by its primary goal which is: "to ensure that all migrant students reach challenging academic standards AND graduate with a high school diploma that prepares them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment."

Bob Levy, the Director of ESCORT, has been fully committed to the *Help! Kit* and has allotted considerable staff time to its creation. He has seen over the years how useful the primary kit is for teachers of migrant, limited English proficient students, and he put a great deal of energy into finding a way to produce a secondary version.

Special thanks are owed to Bob Thomas and Lara Ackley at ESCORT who spent many hours helping with logistical and editorial support. They willingly took on any task, no matter how tedious.

And finally, the talented team of Donna Nalley and Tracy Hamilton at the SERVE office in Tallahassee did a fantastic job of making the *Help! Kit* as accurate and visually appealing as it could be. Special thanks to Jean Williams of SERVE for offering to assist with the production of the guide.

Additional copies of the *Help! Kit: A Resource Guide for Secondary Teachers of Migrant English Language Learners* can be obtained by contacting:

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"How are we supposed to learn anything if we do not understand it?"

—Miguel, tenth-grade student

CHAPTER I:
What is the *Help! Kit*?

Welcome to the ***Help! Kit*** for teachers of middle and high school migrant students. The ***Help! Kit*** for elementary school teachers was produced in 1989 by a task force of Virginia migrant educators who were getting an increasing number of requests for information about and assistance with their English language learners (ELLs). This secondary version of the ***Help! Kit*** provides helpful information to busy mainstream teachers who are seeking practical, research-based advice on how they can more effectively teach, evaluate, and nurture their limited English proficient (LEP) migrant students. It is important to emphasize that most of the strategies promoted are ones that are characteristic of good teaching and will benefit all students, not just English language learners.

In addition to the goal of providing teachers with a resource that helps them to boost the achievement of their LEP students, the secondary ***Help! Kit*** includes sections that address issues that are particularly relevant to the needs of migrant secondary students. These issues include the following:

- Focusing on credit accrual
- Meeting graduation requirements in an era of rising standards
- Promoting continuing education options
- Suggesting ways of using technology to enhance continuity of instruction

Students who change schools frequently will take longer to master English and content-area material. Every state is in the process of implementing rigorous standards for teaching and learning. Whether thousands of miles away from home during the apple-picking season, or a few streets away from their most recent residence, children ought to have the same access to good teaching and high expectations wherever they are educated.

The Secondary ***Help! Kit*** is designed to do the following:

1. Provide mainstream teachers with instructional strategies and resources that will benefit all LEP migrant students, but can also assist them with other students who have varying levels of English proficiency and learning styles
2. Introduce research-based teaching strategies that focus on the key content areas of language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science
3. Provide cultural information to help teachers better understand and appreciate migrant students and their families
4. Offer suggestions on how to encourage migrant parents, extended family members, peers, mentors, and other significant individuals to play an active role in promoting educational excellence
5. Identify fundamental as well as alternative methods to evaluate and monitor the progress of migrant LEP students
6. Provide a wealth of current resources and references teachers can use to pursue more fully areas of interest covered in the *Help! Kit*
7. Highlight approaches and types of programming that have proven successful in helping migrant students to graduate
8. Feature creative uses of technology that help maintain instructional and curricular continuity
9. Suggest options such as scholarships and financial aid that help to make continuing education beyond high school a possibility

Migrant students are overwhelmingly of Mexican or Mexican American origin, which is why you will find most of the examples in this kit focusing on this population. The June 2000 report released by the Council of Economic Advisers projects that in 20 years about one in six U.S. residents will be of Hispanic origin. Because of the increasingly large numbers of Mexicans living in the U.S., there are also a proportionately large number of resources being developed to meet the needs of educators of students who speak Spanish at home and to benefit Spanish-speaking parents and students. Migrant students come from a wide variety of backgrounds, such as Haitian, Guatemalan, and Vietnamese, and the strategies recommended in the ***Help! Kit*** are applicable to all language-minority students. If you wish to find information related to a particular country or language, the World Wide Web and your school and/or local libraries are rich resources to explore.

Remember that many of your language-minority students were born in the U.S.—even though they may speak a language other than English at home, they may have had little to no exposure to the country of their parents or grandparents.

Also, it is important to note that not all of your migrant students will be limited English proficient. Assessing their level of English proficiency will help you to determine the level of support they will require.

The ***Help! Kit*** is divided into 12 chapters. Resources related to the topics covered in a chapter can be found at the end of the chapter. The terms English Language Learner (ELL) and Limited English Proficient (LEP) are used interchangeably throughout the ***Help! Kit*** to refer to the same population of learners. As you make your way through the kit, keep reminding yourself that "limited English proficient" does not mean "limited thinking proficient."

Migrant Student Profile

- 84.9% Hispanic
- 9.2% White
- 2.2% Asian
- 2.4% Black
- 1.2% Other
- 170,000 Grades 7–12
- 15% Migrant students receiving LEP/ESL services
- High Mobility: 2–3 times each school year
- Almost half of the nation's migrant farm workers have less than a ninth-grade education.
- The average annual migrant farm worker family income is substantially lower than the national poverty threshold.

(Source: Office of Migrant Education)

National Student Profile

1 in 5 of our nation's children are immigrants or American-born children of immigrants.

2.0–3.3 million are English language learners.

73% of ELLs are native Spanish-speakers.

2 in 5 Latino students aged 15–17 were enrolled below grade level.

(Source: U.S. Department of Education)

Glossary of Terms for Navigating the *Help! Kit*

Additive bilingualism—Occurs in an environment in which the addition of a second language and culture does not replace the first language and culture; rather, the first language/culture are promoted and developed (Lambert, 1982).

BICS—Basic interpersonal communications skills; the language ability required for face-to-face communication where linguistic interactions are embedded in a situational context. For example, children acquire BICS from their classmates, the media, and day-to-day experiences. Research has shown that it takes between one and three years to attain this basic level of oral proficiency (Cummins, 1984).

CALP—Cognitive academic language proficiency; a mastery of academic language believed to be necessary for students to succeed in context-reduced and cognitively-demanding areas such as reading, writing, math, science, and social studies. Examples of context-reduced environments include classroom lectures and textbook reading assignments (Cummins, 1984). Research has shown that it takes between five and ten years to gain the academic English required for a second-language student to perform at grade level (Collier, Thomas, 1997).

Bilingualism—Defining bilingualism is problematic since individuals with varying bilingual characteristics may be classified as bilingual. One approach is to recognize various categories of bilingualism such as: 1) bilingual ability—individuals who are fluent in two languages but rarely use both, and 2) bilingual usage—individuals who may be less fluent but who use both languages regularly. In addition, determination of bilingual proficiency should include consideration of the four language dimensions—listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Baker, 1993).

Comprehensible input—Ensuring that a concept is understood by a second language learner through adapting the level of difficulty of the language to the student's level of proficiency.

Content-based English as a second language—This approach makes use of instructional materials, learning tasks, and classroom techniques from academic content areas as the vehicle for developing language, content, cognitive and study skills. English is used as the medium of instruction (Crandall, 1992).

Dominant language—The language with which the speaker has greater proficiency and/or uses more often (Baker, 1993).

Dual language (immersion) program—Also known as two-way or developmental, these bilingual programs allow students to develop language proficiency in two languages by receiving instruction in English and another language in a classroom that is usually comprised of half native English speakers and half native speakers of the other language (Christian, D., 1994).

ELL—English language learners (ELLs) are students whose first language is not English and who are in the process of learning English. Unlike other terminology, such as limited English proficient, ELL highlights what these students are accomplishing rather than focusing on their temporary deficits (Lacelle-Peterson, M.W. and Rivera, C., 1994).

English dominant—A student whose language of communication is predominantly English.

ESL—English as a second language is an educational approach in which limited English proficient students are instructed in the use of the English language. Their instruction is based on a special curriculum that typically involves little or no use of the native language and is taught during specific school periods. For the rest of the school day, students may be placed in mainstream classrooms (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1994).

ESOL—English for speakers of other languages (same as ESL).

ESP—English for specific purposes refers to situations where technical English is taught for use in the professions, science, or for vocational needs (Strevens, 1977).

English only—An umbrella term that is used to refer to different federal and state legislative initiatives and various national, state, and local organizations, all of which involve the effort to make English the official language of the U.S. The initiatives and organizations vary in the degree to which they promote the suppression of non-English languages (Lewelling, 1992).

English plus—A movement based on the belief that all U.S. residents should have the opportunity to become proficient in English plus one or more other languages (Lewelling, 1992).

Home language—The first language learned by a child, usually the language of his or her home.

Immersion—Programs in which ESL students are taught a second language through content area instruction. These programs generally emphasize contextual clues and adjust grammar and vocabulary to the student's proficiency level.

L1—The first language learned by a child, also called the "native" or "home" language.

L2—Refers to a person's second language, not the language learned from birth.

Language maintenance—The protection and promotion of the first or native language in an individual or within a speech community (Lambert, 1982).

Language minority—In the U.S., individuals living in households in which a language other than English is spoken.

LEP—Limited English proficient is the term used by the federal government, most states, and local school districts to identify those students who have insufficient English to succeed in English-only classrooms (Lessow-Hurley, 1991).

Migrant—A child whose parents have crossed school district boundaries within the last three years for reasons of employment in agriculture or agri-related businesses (e.g., poultry processing).

Native language—Refers to the first language learned in the home (home language), which often continues to be the stronger language in terms of competence and function (Baker, 1993).

Primary language—The first language learned by a child, usually the language of his or her home and most often used to express ideas and concepts.

Sheltered English—An instructional approach used to make academic instruction in English understandable to limited English proficient students. Students in these classes are "sheltered" in that they do not compete academically with native English speakers in the mainstream. In the sheltered classroom, teachers use physical activities, visual aids, and the environment to teach vocabulary for concept development in math, science, social studies, and other subjects (National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1987).

Subtractive bilingualism—Occurs in an environment in which the second language and culture are intended to replace the first language/culture (Lambert, 1982).

Transitional bilingual education—TBE, also known as early-exit bilingual education, is an instructional program in which subjects are taught in two languages—English and the native language of the limited English proficient students. The primary purpose of these programs is to facilitate the LEP student's transition to an all-English instructional environment while receiving academic subject instruction in the native language to the extent necessary. TBE programs vary in the amount of native language instruction provided and the duration of the program (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1994).

Chapter 2 At-a-Glance

Chapter 2 will provide you with introductory information in three areas.

The first topic is "Who are our migrant students?" and includes information that will familiarize you with migrant students and their parents. The term "migrant" is often confused with "immigrant"—especially because many migrant farm workers and their children have come to the U.S. as immigrants.

The second topic is "Facts about learning a second language." This section will provide you with an overview of the nature of second language acquisition as well as an explanation of the importance of using the student's native language as a resource. You will also learn about how bilingual students "have two language systems that both overlap and are distinct" as they continue to gain proficiency in English. The section ends with some specific advice for teachers of English language learners.

The third topic is "What can I do as a teacher?" This section contains specific suggestions on how you can best support your migrant students both inside and outside of the classroom. You will find tips on how you can help them succeed in the classroom as well as information about supplemental programs such as English as a second language that your school/district should be offering to students with limited English proficiency. You will read about ways that you can collaborate more effectively with your school's ESL teacher(s). In addition, what federal law says about a district's responsibilities for serving ELLs is outlined here.

The complex topics of grade retention and special education referrals will also be addressed, and, finally, there is some basic Spanish vocabulary for those who want to brush up on high school Spanish or begin learning your own second language.

"One problem I had recently was facing my future. I had the decision to either continue in school or quit to help my family in money problems. Well, I decided to continue in school so that I could go to college and get a good job and then help my family. I learned that staying in school is the best way I could help my family."

—Saul,
a tenth-grade
migrant student

Who Are Our Migrant Students?

Migrant students are highly mobile and are likely to have recently arrived in your school district. Each one of you can do your part to help your migrant students succeed as they strive to graduate from high school and pursue continuing education opportunities. You can have a particularly profound impact by taking a personal interest in your migrant students, being flexible, and providing comprehensible instruction for students who frequently have gaps in their knowledge of course content and/or limited proficiency in English.

In the following sections, you'll be provided with some answers to the question "Who are our migrant students?"

CHAPTER 2:

Migrant Students, Schools, and Culture

Feelings of self-worth can flourish only in an atmosphere where individual differences are appreciated, mistakes are tolerated, communication is open, and rules are flexible—the kind of atmosphere that is found in a nurturing family.

—Virginia Satir

1. Characteristics of Migrant Students and Parents

Students

Migrant students are students who move with their families as many as two or three times each school year. Their parents are usually farm workers who are compelled to move frequently in order to harvest and/or process seasonal crops. A family who spends the winter in Florida picking oranges begins to move north in the spring to pick peaches in Georgia and then to New York in the fall to pick apples. Once the apples are picked and the cold weather comes, the migrant family heads back to Florida until the following spring, when the cycle begins again. While many migrant children were born in the United States, the majority of mobile migrants are primarily of Mexican (77 percent, National Agricultural Workers Survey, 1997-98), Central American, Puerto Rican, or Haitian origin. Many of these migrant students will move through your school without ever finishing a grade and may or may not come back the following year after encounters with other schools. These students—whose English proficiency is often limited—face the challenge of adapting to a new school, new teachers, and new classmates many times each year. Many of the U.S.-born middle and high school migrant students are fluent in English, but they have trouble succeeding in school because of the many risk factors associated with their highly mobile lifestyle. Migrant children draw a lot of strength from their family, which is the focal point and the one constant in their lives.

An increasing number of migrant families are staying put as they seek more stable jobs in poultry processing or other agriculturally-related processing jobs. The eligibility for the federally funded migrant education program is three years from the time that a family has moved to your district. This means that you may have migrant students who are less mobile than the classic migrant previously described. In addition, there are fewer families migrating because the farm workforce increasingly consists of young, single males who are recent immigrants (NAWS, 1997-98).

As responsible members of the family, children are often called upon to fulfill adult roles such as babysitting, translating, getting a job, or transporting a parent to an appointment. These responsibilities sometimes conflict with the school system's expectation that each student must attend school unless he or she is sick. Along with learning responsibility early, children are taught to respect and obey adults, both within and outside of the family.

The middle and high school years are particularly difficult for highly mobile students who want to fit in with their peers more than anything. Migrant children who attend rural schools where there are few students they can relate to may feel isolated, incompetent, scared, and uncomfortable (in addition to the riot of emotions experienced by a typical teenager). They frequently feel caught between the two worlds of home and school—each with its own rules, language, and norms of behavior.

Some migrant students from rural areas of Mexico or Central America face a more challenging adaptation process because they may not speak Spanish (see "home language"), and they may be very unfamiliar with "mainstream" concepts of schooling. These students who speak an indigenous language at home often have a very reserved affect and tend to be extremely shy and uncomfortable when they are the center of attention.

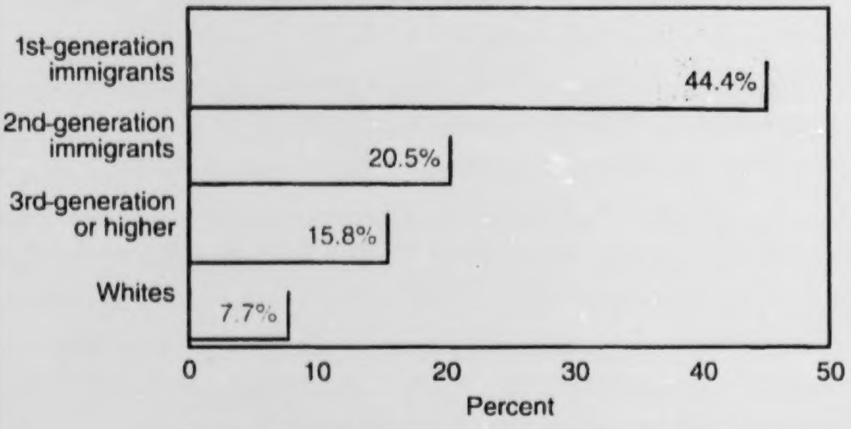
Making an effort to overtly welcome and get to know your migrant teenagers and encouraging your other students to do the same will go a long way toward helping them feel accepted and good about themselves. It is essential to find out what each student knows both from schooling in the home country and schooling in the United States. In this way, you can contribute in a meaningful way to maintaining the educational continuity that is vital for these students to succeed.

Parents

The parents of migrant students work very hard, make little money (about $8,000 a year on average), and often live in substandard housing. They tend to come from rural areas of their native countries or the U.S. and often have a marginal level of education because they had to begin working at a young age and/or schools were unavailable. The vast majority of migrant parents speak Spanish (84 percent), while some speak an indigenous language, Haitian Creole, or Vietnamese. They tend to know little about the requirements that your school system may have.

Education is highly valued by most migrant families. It is seen as a ticket to the future, providing the possibility of a job that promises better wages and is not subject to the whims of the weather and the marketplace. Migrant parents firmly believe in the importance of education and are convinced that it will offer their children opportunities that they did not have. However, believing in the value of education and actually providing ongoing support for the pursuit of education may result in two, often conflicting desires. Because the nature of migrant work involves the challenges of mobility and limited peak earning times, daily attendance at school may sometimes be considered a "luxury." When survival ne-

Dropout Rates for Hispanic Immigrants and Whites 1998, Aged 16-24



Source: Educational Attainment and Success in the New Economy: An Analysis of Challenges for Improving Hispanic Students' Achievement, Council of Economic Advisors, 2000 cessitates that all who wish to eat must work, or when work comes to an end and stakes must be pulled up yet again, education may become secondary to survival. Many migrant families will try to delay their departure or leave before a harvest is complete in order to ensure that their children don't miss any school. Once they become aware of the importance of attending school regularly, parents often come up with special arrangements—such as leaving their school-aged children behind with a relative while they move to another district or state to obtain work.

The family is essentially patriarchal, at least to outward appearances. The roles of males and females are clearly defined—males are seen as the breadwinners, decision-makers, and disciplinarians. Although migrant women often labor next to the men and contribute financially to the family, their roles are more often defined by homemaking and childrearing. Initial concerns or difficulties may be discussed with the mother, but the father's approval must be secured before any significant decisions can be made.

You will probably need to ask a bilingual person to help you determine what language is used in the home, and the parents' level of awareness of school requirements and expectations. The bilingual person may be an ESL teacher or aide, a migrant education specialist, or a community volunteer. With the help of such a bilingual person, you can either send notes home or call in order to maintain contact with them. Remember, migrant parents want what's best for their children, and you should keep them informed and elicit their support whenever possible. (See Chapter 9, "Fostering Home-School Partnerships," for more in-depth information.)

"My family and I still do things together here; they are just different things from what we did in Mexico. When we first moved here, we all worked together. We worked in the cebollitas (green onion) fields. We worked as a family because it's faster. We helped each other. One person pulls the onion out of the ground, the other person shakes it, another cleans it, and then one of us ties them up together. I think doing things, working together, is important. It makes our family stronger. Sometimes we stay home, and I help my father work on our car. We try to eat dinner together, and when my parents aren't working too late, we go to church together. My parents don't think I should work in the fields when I get older. They tell me that I shouldn't lose a career like a lot of people in the fields. They've also told me that some people get sick because of the work they do in the fields. I think they tell me these things for my well-being, so that I'll study and finish high school."

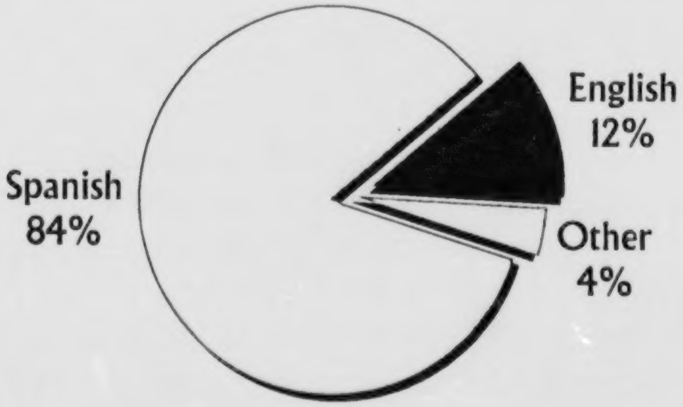
—Victor Machuca, a migrant student, talks about his family.
(*Voices from the Fields*, S. Beth Atkin, p. 50)

2. Home Language

In the homes of most migrant children, the principal language is Spanish. On occasion, the family members communicate using an indigenous language (Mixteco, Kanjobal), although they often know Spanish as well. This is important because you cannot assume that a Mexican or Central American student who enters school will be fluent in Spanish. Find out the language(s) used in the home and the child's schooling history to determine how much Spanish the student knows.

In the migrant community, the parents—as a rule—have limited proficiency in English. According to the most recent National Agricultural Workers Survey (1997-98), just one-tenth of foreign-born farm workers speak or read English fluently. Their literacy level in Spanish may also be quite limited—the NAWS report cites that 85 percent of farm workers would have difficulty obtaining information from printed materials in any language. They often rely on their children who have learned English in U.S. schools to translate for them—thus placing their children in adult roles and situations very early. Generally speaking, the children who have lived in the United States the longest are the ones who use the most English, although their Spanish remains essential as a means to converse with their parents and older relatives. If a student starts to show signs of being ashamed of her knowledge of another language, this is a potential danger signal that she may lose her ability to use her native language even in the home. As a teacher, your support of a student's knowledge and use of a language other than English will help to ensure that he or she will grow up bilingual—an increasingly important skill in this global economy.

Native Language of U.S. Farmworkers



Source: National Agricultural Workers Survey, U.S. Department of Labor, 1997

3. The Bilingual Mind

Valdes and Figueroa (1989) point out that bilingualism is the condition of knowing two languages rather than one. Individuals who are bilingual to any extent have two language systems that both overlap and are distinct and that are relied upon in a variety of ways depending upon the linguistic and communicative demands of everyday settings.

In any given moment or circumstance, any bilingual student will have a temporarily stronger language. A bilingual student may have relatively greater fluency with the formal or informal style in either language; or may dream and speak, but not read or write, in one of the languages. Often, too, bilingual students switch back and forth from one language to another as they speak and think. These variations arise from such circumstances as their age of arrival in the U.S., the language(s) spoken at home and in the neighborhood, the frequency of television watching, and, of course, the language(s) emphasized in their classrooms.

In fact, many new immigrants settle in neighborhoods among others from their country of origin and after a time may not speak like a "native" in either of their languages. This is because features of the native language are often integrated into the English spoken in, say, a predominantly Hispanic or Chinese neighborhood, at the same time as English features become part of their spoken and even written native language. Similarly, most "bilingual classes" are places where the teacher and students switch back and forth between two languages, forming mental landscapes that are complex and unique mixtures of both language systems.

Excerpted from Assessing Bilingual Students for Placement and Instruction, *Carol Ascher, 1990, ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education*

What Are the Benefits of Learning Two Languages?

Throughout the world, knowing more than one language is the norm, not the exception. It is estimated that between half and two-thirds of the world's population is bilingual; the majority of people live in situations where they regularly use two or more languages. Knowing more than one language, therefore, is a skill to be valued and encouraged. Research shows that continuing to develop a child's native language does not interfere with the acquisition of English—it facilitates the process!

The child who knows more than one language has personal, social, cognitive, and economic advantages, which will continue throughout his or her life.

Some of the benefits of bilingualism are:

Intellectual:

Students need uninterrupted intellectual development. When students who are not yet fluent in English switch to using only English, they are forced to function at an intellectual level below their age. The best way to ensure academic success and intellectual development is for parents and children to use the language they know best with each other.

Additionally, research shows that knowing more than one language increases a person's thinking abilities. Bilingual children have greater mental flexibility and use those skills to their advantage in figuring out math concepts as well as solving word problems.

Educational:

Students who learn English and continue to develop their native language do better in school, and learn English better, than do students who learn English at the expense of their first language.

Personal:

A student's first language is critical to his or her identity. Continuing to develop this language helps the child value his or her culture and heritage, contributing to a positive self-concept.

Social:

When the native language is maintained, important links to family and other community members are preserved and enhanced. By encouraging native language use, you can prepare your child to interact with his/her extended family and the native language community, both in the U.S. and throughout the world.

Economic:

The demand for bilingual employees in this global economy is increasing at a rapid rate. The ability to speak, read, and write two or more languages is a great advantage in the job market.

Excerpted from If Your Child Learns in Two Languages, *National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 2000*

20

4. Facts about Learning a Second Language

More than 10 million students currently enrolled in U.S. schools come from homes in which a language other than English is spoken. These students, often referred to as "language-minority students," represent the fastest-growing segment of the school-age population. Language-minority students may know only their native language, or they may be able to use both their native language and English. According to the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, close to four million language-minority students do not yet have sufficient skills in English to be able to succeed in a traditional classroom in which English is the language of instruction. In many school districts, the term "English Language Learner" (ELL) is used to identify these students. Federal legislation refers to these students as "limited English proficient" (LEP).

Language, both oral and written, is the means by which knowledge is transmitted in homes, schools, and society. Therefore, language is a very important component of the instructional process in school. Research studies have provided the following results on the relationship between language and learning.

There are different degrees of language ability—conversational and classroom.

Conversational English (BICS—Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills)

Conversational English consists of knowing enough English to have a conversation with friends on the playground, with neighbors, or the cashier in the grocery store. It is often referred to as "survival English." Students usually can attain this type of proficiency in one to two years—from watching television, listening to older siblings, or playing with friends.

Classroom English (CALP—Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency)

Classroom English can best be described as the language skills necessary to understand the academic language used in classroom instruction and in textbooks and the ability to use language to define terms and concepts. Classroom English is more complex and abstract than conversational English and is learned incrementally over time. There are few, if any, contextual clues—such as pictures, facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice, or body language—used to convey information. The language that teachers and textbooks use becomes more difficult at each grade level, which makes school even more challenging for older LEP students.

Research shows that it takes at least five and possibly up to ten years (Collier, Thomas 1997) to master classroom English. Unfortunately, many students are moved into all-English classrooms too early based solely on their conversational English ability. However, without mastery of classroom English, they will have difficulty competing academically in an all-English setting.

Students Cannot Learn if They Cannot Understand the Language of Instruction.

The language students hear must be comprehensible. If a child doesn't understand what the teacher is saying, s/he is not going to learn content subjects such as math, science, or social studies. Similarly, students will not learn English just by being in a mainstream classroom where the teacher speaks only English.

Excerpted from If Your Child Learns in Two Languages. *National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. 2000*

Stephen Krashen (1981) uses the term "comprehensible input" to describe the type of linguistic data required for second language acquisition.

For input to be comprehensible to the second language learner, it must have the following characteristics:

1

It must contain language already known to the student with some language not yet acquired. This new language can be understood through

- Context
- Paralinguistic clues such as gestures
- Linguistic modifications such as intonation or reduction in rate of speech
- Use of the students' knowledge of the topic

2

It is not sufficient that input focus on messages rather than form. For maximum comprehensibility of the input, the messages must be intrinsically interesting to the students so that they are encouraged to persist in negotiating meaning. Stevick (1980) suggests that content becomes meaningful when it triggers the student's imagination and when it is explored in interaction with other students.

3

The focus on meaningful messages communicated in an understandable manner will ensure that the appropriate grammatical structures are included in the comprehensible input.

Providing students comprehensible second language input is not sufficient, however, for language acquisition to take place. For optimum acquisition to occur, the raw material of language (comprehensible input) must reach and be processed by the brain's language acquisition device. A number of affective factors, termed the "affective filter" (Dulay & Burt, 1977), may limit the amount of comprehensible input available for processing and impede or facilitate the student's production of language.

Such affective filters as low anxiety (Stevick, 1976), positive motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), and self-confidence (Krashen, 1981) have been shown to be positively associated with second language acquisition. Conversely, when students are anxious in the second language classroom, are not motivated to speak the new language, and lack self-confidence and self-esteem, acquisition will be impaired.

Excerpted from Basic Principles for the Education of Language-minority students: An Overview, *California State Department of Education, 1982*

The Importance of Using a Student's Native Language as a Resource

When a student's native language is used correctly in educational programs, it is of tremendous benefit. It can catalyze and accelerate second language acquisition. When we give students good instruction through their first language, we give them two things:

- First, we give them knowledge. This can be subject matter knowledge or knowledge of the world in general. The knowledge students get in their first language can make second language input more comprehensible. A student at grade level in math, for example, thanks to quality education in his or her first language, will be able to follow a math class taught in the second language much better than a student who is behind in math. The first child will not only get more math, he or she will make more progress in second language acquisition because he or she will get more comprehensible input.
- Second, quality education in the primary language helps the student to develop literacy in the second language. We can distinguish two kinds of literacy—basic reading ability and problem-solving ability.

Basic Literacy

Basic literacy is the ability to read and write. Showing how the first language helps develop basic literacy is a two-step argument: If we learn to read by reading, it will be much easier to learn to read in a language you know, since the print in that language will be more comprehensible. Once you can read, you can read. This ability transfers rapidly to other languages you acquire. If the goal is second language literacy, a rapid means of achieving it is building reading ability in a student's first language.

Ability to Use Language to Solve Problems

The second kind of literacy is the ability to use language—oral and written—to solve problems and make yourself smarter. Clearly, this kind of competence also transfers across languages. If you have learned, for example, to read selectively or have learned that revision helps you discover new ideas in one language, you will be able to read selectively and revise your writing in another language. In other words, once you are educated, you are educated.

Excerpted from Fundamentals of Language Education, *Krashen, S.D., 1992*

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How Long?

One of the most commonly asked questions about the education of language-minority students is how long they need special services, such as English as a Second Language (ESL) or bilingual education. Under the U.S. Supreme Court's interpretation of the Civil Rights Act in Lau v. Nichols (1974), local school districts and states have an obligation to provide appropriate services to limited English proficient (LEP) students, but policymakers have long debated setting time limits for students to receive such services.

The clear conclusion emerging from recent research is that even in two California districts that are considered the most successful in teaching English to LEP students, oral proficiency takes three to five years to develop, and academic English proficiency can take four to seven years. The data from two school districts in Canada offer corroboration. Indeed, these estimates may be underestimates because only students who remained in the same district since kindergarten were included. While critics of bilingual education have claimed that use of the native language delays acquisition of English, this is a claim that is without foundation in the academic literature on bilingualism.

The analysis also revealed a continuing and widening gap between LEP students and native English speakers. The gap illustrates the daunting task facing these students, who not only have to acquire oral and academic English, but also have to keep pace with native English speakers who continue to develop their language skills. The results suggest that policies that assume rapid acquisition of English are wildly unrealistic.

Excerpted from How Long Does It Take English Learners to Attain Proficiency? *Hakuta, Goto Butler, Witt, 2000, Stanford University. Complete study available at http://lmrinet.uscb.edu/index.html*

Impact of Student Mobility

Students who change schools frequently will take longer to master English and content-area material. It seems that such mobility presents a strong argument for the standards-based movement. In addition, providing migrant students with opportunities to catch up (after-school tutorials, summer school) will help them to bridge the achievement gap. Mobile students ought to have the same access to good teaching and high expectations wherever they are educated.

Issues around Continuity of Instructional Models

If you have highly mobile LEP migrant students, it would be useful to ask them what kind of instructional program they were in at their last school. Many migrant students as they move from state to state are subjected to not only differences in curriculum but also differences in methods of instruction. For example, a student may be in a transitional bilingual program in one state, but when she moves to another state, there is no native language support available. This can be very disorienting for a student who is told in one school that she needs to maintain her native language and then told by her next school that she should use only English. Your school's ESL teacher, migrant education representative, or bilingual home-school liaison should be able to assist you in finding out this information.

You might ask the following questions about your student's academic background:

English:	Spanish:
1 What subjects did you study in your other schools? Which language did you study them in?	1 ¿Cuáles materias estudiabas antes de venir a esta escuela? ¿En cuáles idiomas estudiabas?
2 Which books did you use in your other schools? Which languages were the books written in?	2 ¿Cuáles libros de texto usabas en tus estudios? ¿En cuáles idiomas estaban escritos?
3 Did you study in a bilingual program? If you did, which subjects did you study in your home language, and which subjects did you study in English?	3 ¿Estudiabas en un programa bilingue? En el programa bilingue, ¿cuáles cursos estudiabas en español y cuáles en inglés?

5. What Can I Do as a Teacher?

Students identified as limited English proficient (LEP) on objective assessments of language proficiency that measure listening, speaking, reading, and writing must be placed in a sound alternative and appropriate language program. ESL, structured immersion with ESL methodologies, and bilingual education are examples of alternative language programs that have been recognized as sound by experts in the field.

There may be little to no ESL support available at your school because of a low incidence of LEP students and/or you are in a rural school district where ESL support personnel are unable to deliver services efficiently. If this is the case, you can do the following:

- Learn from resources such as this kit and/or your district ESL staff about how language is acquired and what are recommended instructional and assessment strategies.
- Advocate for more ESL staff and teacher training for your district.
- Search out local volunteers who may be willing to meet with your LEP student to offer one-on-one help with key vocabulary and concepts.
- Ask if there is a local migrant education program, and contact them (National Hotline: 1-800-234-8848) to find out what kind of assistance they can provide (see explanation, Chapter 12, page 236).

Whether your LEP student is receiving direct instructional support or not, you should do whatever you can to convey the basic elements of your lessons to him. It is often advisable to enlist the help of other English-speaking students who may know the LEP student's native language. Be careful not to rely too much on a bilingual student who may be struggling academically in her own right. Students who are literate in their native language will be able to work independently using tools such as bilingual dictionaries, textbooks, and software.

If your LEP student is only minimally literate in his native language, you will have to rely on oral English and visual aids and arrange for individual and/or small group literacy instruction. If teachers or tutors are available who know the student's home language, it is sometimes more efficient to build on his native language literacy than to embark immediately on English.

Self-Fulfilling Prophecy?

The "self-fulfilling prophecy" phenomenon is based on the judgments teachers make about the academic potential of individual students in their classes. According to the literature reviewed by Villegas (1990), once a teacher forms a judgment of a student's potential, expectations related to achievement are communicated both overtly and implicitly. The student, in turn, translates these teacher-based expectations into either positive or negative outcomes related to achievement, aspiration, and self-concept.

Some stereotypes that have been used to blame Hispanic students for dropping out of school suggest that they do not care about school, do not want to learn, do not come to school ready to learn, use drugs, belong to gangs, engage in violence, cannot achieve, have cultural backgrounds that are incompatible with schools, do not know English, are illegal immigrants, and in general, do not merit help or to be taken seriously. Complicating the issue, immigrants from rural areas in Mexico and who are children of migrant farmworkers may have had numerous absences and transfers because of their families' migration patterns.

These stereotypes suggest that little should be expected of Hispanic children, as if providing them with challenging opportunities to achieve educational excellence will only drive them out of school in increasing numbers. Quite the contrary: The Hispanic Dropout Project found that Hispanic students are most likely to learn when curricular content is challenging and meaningful.

What basic skills and support do teachers need to be effective in a culturally diverse classroom?

- A self-awareness (of attitudes on multiculturalism and strengths and weaknesses in working with people from different cultural backgrounds)
- An ability to communicate effectively (written, verbal, non-verbal)
- An ability to think critically, analytically, and creatively
- An ability to challenge and stimulate students to learn to apply critical thinking skills
- A sensitivity to and appreciation of individual differences
- A positive attitude
- A willingness to integrate a multicultural perspective into the classroom and curriculum
- A willingness to build and strengthen curriculum bridges among home, school, and community

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Excerpted from Appreciating Differences: Teaching and Learning in a Culturally Diverse Classroom, *E. Ploumis-Devick, 1995, SERVE.*

Do You Have Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students?

Most limited English proficient students speak another language in their homes. If you've ever studied a foreign language, you surely remember what a painstaking discovery process it is. A key point to keep in mind is that it generally takes from five to ten years for a second language learner to perform like a native speaker academically.

As a high school teacher, you may well ask: "How can we expect our LEP students to graduate within four years if it takes at least five years for them to become proficient in English?" An important first step is to find out the schooling history of your ESL students. They may have attended school in the U.S. for a number of years before entering high school. For those students who enter high school as recent immigrants, it will be helpful to find out their level of literacy in their native language. The degree of native language literacy is a powerful predictor of a student's academic success. Closing the gap within four years in this era of rising standards is a challenge that can be met by the following:

- Creating a hospitable classroom environment where students' distinctive attributes are treated as resources. Encouraging your students to share their home language and culture with you and your class is especially beneficial.
- Pairing ESL students with academically-able students who are willing to work with them, check their comprehension, and monitor their progress. Placing the students in cooperative learning groups is also helpful because they will have more opportunities to listen to and speak English in a comfortable setting.
- Focusing attention on key vocabulary. Using pictures, charts, graphs, story maps, and other graphic organizers to impart the lesson content in ways that don't require a grade-level knowledge of English.
- Checking comprehension frequently. LEP students are reluctant (or unable) to ask questions or even to admit that they don't understand. Non-English speaking students will sometimes pass through what is called a "silent period" that is a span of weeks or months during which the student will be reluctant to speak. This is a natural part of language acquisition, and LEP students will be able to comprehend more than they can produce for a number of years. It is up to you to make sure that they understand directions and the key points of your lesson.
- Providing students who are literate with materials in their native language. Many textbooks, novels, and software programs are available in Spanish. Bilingual dictionaries also enable ESL students to use their first language as a learning tool.
- Explaining and/or demonstrating anything that is assumed to be common knowledge (often culturally based) in the U.S. Some examples are: American heroes, folklore, holiday rituals, political figures, famous historical occurrences such as "Custer's last stand." This type of information has to be explicitly taught—especially if it is key to the lesson.
- Arranging for your LEP students to receive intensive help with English whenever possible (including after school and summer programs). Searching out volunteers (especially ones who speak Spanish) can help provide your students with crucial one-on-one assistance, and they can help clarify difficult concepts in their native language.
- Modifying and adapting assessments so that your LEP student will be held accountable for at least some major elements of a lesson. Students may be tested orally if their reading and writing skills are too limited.

Some Advice for Teachers of English Language Learners

- The degree of students' native-language proficiency is a strong predictor of their English language development.
- Whether learning English as a native or second language, a person can be expected to progress through a series of linguistic stages—from the simplest one-word utterances to (at fluency) the most complex grammatical constructions. The fact that a student is at a low linguistic stage in no way indicates that he or she is incapable of mastering more sophisticated language.
- Teachers should not expect ESL students to understand or react to statements spoken at a level much above their own speaking stage. Thus, listening to a lecture designed for 14-year-old native English speakers will do little for students whose linguistic level is within the lowest stages of development.
- The learner cannot be forced from one stage of linguistic development to the next before he or she is ready. Although, when prompted, the junior or senior high school learner can sometimes mimic elaborate grammatical structures, he will quickly revert to his natural level. Students should, nevertheless, be coaxed to move gradually from stage to stage.
- Phonological changes are difficult though not impossible to effect after age 12 or 13. "Accentless" speech above this age may be an impossibility, and to expect it may prove counterproductive.
- Vocabulary is very much a product of one's surroundings; since second languages are more often learned in school than at home, this vocabulary is bound to reflect the slang and catchwords of the day. Generally, those terms emphasized most and used most will be learned first.
- An important dimension is the age and concomitant cognitive skills of the second language learner. Because of their more advanced cognitive skills, older children acquire a second language at a more rapid rate than younger students.

Outcome Indicators

	Baseline Year	Hispanic	National
Percentage of *eighth*-graders who scored at or above the proficient level on the *reading* section of the NAEP test	1998	15%	33%
Percentage of *eighth*-graders who scored at or above the proficient level on the *mathematics* section of the NAEP test	1996	9%	24%

Source: Key Indicators of Hispanic Student Achievement: National Goals and Benchmarks for the Next Decade, U.S. Department of Education, 2000

What You Need to Know About Your Limited English Proficient Students

1. **How many years (months) has the student been attending school in the United States?**

(Research (Collier, Thomas, 1997) has determined that it takes from five to ten years to become proficient in academic English. A student's oral English will develop within about two years, but his or her ability to comprehend and produce the level of English necessary for content-area subjects will take considerably longer.)

2. **How many years (months) has the student attended school in his or her native country?**

(A student with a solid educational background will learn English and adapt to school routines more quickly than a student with a fragmented schooling history.)

3. **Can the student read and write in his or her native language?**

Yes, fluently __________

Yes, adequately _______

Yes, poorly ______

No ______

(Research (Cummins, 1981) has determined that students who enter school in the U.S. able to read and write in their native language will learn English more quickly and be able to use their first language as a learning tool.)

6. Grade Retention: A Common Yet Misguided Option

Studies show that students with a one-year age-grade discrepancy are 50 percent more likely to drop out of school, while an age-grade discrepancy of two or more years increases that probability to 90 percent. Hispanics are more likely than blacks and far more likely than whites to be two or more grades behind in school. By age 17, one in six Hispanic students is at least two years behind expected grade level, and two in five are one year behind. Migrant students continue to head the list of students older than their classmates, many times through no fault of their own. Diane Mull, executive director of the Association of Farmworker Opportunity Programs, states that "a near majority of migrant students—45 to 50 percent—don't graduate from high school."

Sooner or later, you will meet a migrant student with a significant age-grade discrepancy on the brink of dropping out of school.

See if you recognize Daniel:

Daniel turned 17 during his second year of high school. He had earned only five out of a possible 9.7 credits, resulting in his being reclassified as a freshman. Daniel migrated with his family each June to Virginia and returned to Florida in late October. He was retained in third grade due to his lack of English proficiency and again in seventh grade because of poor grades. Although his family's annual migration pattern often resulted in late enrollments, school interruptions, and poor attendance, these factors did not affect his grade promotion seriously until he entered high school.

Daniel enrolled in school in Virginia each fall, but he attended for such a short time that his teachers found it hard to grant him credit for the work done while in their classes. He then would return to Florida with no transfer grades to be averaged with the remaining semester grades. One year, he was placed in a course that he had already passed, causing him to lose .5 unit of credit. U.S. History offered in ninth grade in Florida was called American History and offered in tenth grade in Virginia. Although the error was brought to light, his guidance counselor was unable to grant him credit for passing the same course twice.

Finding himself several years older than his classmates, with little hope of ever catching up, Daniel began to seriously consider dropping out of school.

(See p. 208 for some solutions to Daniel's dilemma.)

What Leads to Age-Grade Discrepancy in High School?

Studies show repeatedly that one of the most significant factors motivating students to stay in school is a teacher who believes that every student can succeed, no matter how many apparent barriers the student may face. A report submitted by the National Commission on Secondary Education for Hispanics (1984) contains many important findings and recommendations for middle and high schools with significant numbers of Hispanic students. One of the major findings of this report is: "Personal attention, contact with adults, and family involvement in schools improve the performance and retention of Hispanic students."

(See Chapter 10: The Challenge of Meeting Graduation Requirements for more details on how you might help a student like Daniel make it through high school.)

Required Document and Transcript Issues and Concerns

- Loss or late arrival of transcripts
- Inability to consolidate partial credits
- Not having transcripts from attendance in schools outside the U.S.
- Credits from schools outside the U.S. not accepted by U.S. schools
- Transcripts withheld due to missing books or unpaid fees

Attendance Issues and Concerns

- Systematic discouragement from attending school—inadmittance
- Enrolling late or withdrawing early
- Missing semester exams, clock hours, or assignments
- Chronic health problems
- Familial responsibilities (working, babysitting, translating, transporting, etc.)

Placement and Scheduling Issues and Concerns

- Retention in the early grades
- Poor understanding of promotion requirements and school policies
- Placement in inappropriate schedule or program of study
- Inability to match schedule when transferring to new school
- No or insufficient ESL classes available
- Being placed below grade level due to limited English proficiency

Academic Issues and Concerns

- Low grade-point average
- Limited proficiency in English
- Need for more time to comprehend and complete assignments
- Different course sequencing from state to state
- Inability to come to school early or stay late or on Saturdays to participate in tutoring and other special programs
- Lack of access to various programs, services, resources due to mobility, lack of transportation, living in a rural area, responsibilities, work, etc.

Systemic Issues and Concerns

- Few mechanisms in place to make up missed requirements
- Lack of flexibility in areas of attendance, standardized test dates, etc.
- Lack of equal access to computers, libraries, and other needed resources

7. Helping LEP Students Adjust to School Routines

Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large ELL population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

In School

- School passes and what they're used for
- Cafeteria routines: Line formation, lunch passes
- Fire drills
- Assemblies: Pep rallies, awards, awards ceremonies
- Contests and competitions
- Holidays: Festivities, traditions
- Fund raisers
- Routine health exams, screening
- Suspension
- Guidance counseling
- Disciplinary methods: In-school suspension
- Free lunch: Income verification
- Family life education: Sex education

After School

- Parent conferences and attendance
- PTA meetings
- Proms, dances, special events
- Field days
- After-school and/or Saturday tutoring programs
- Clubs, honor societies, sport activities
- Detention
- Summer school
- Standardized testing and exemptions

8. When Are Special Education Referrals Appropriate?

Specialists assume that approximately the same proportion of very bright individuals, cognitively limited individuals, and language disabled individuals will be found in any population. Statistically, about 12 percent of the language minority population in the United States may require special education. In some school districts, language-minority students are overrepresented in special education, while in other districts there may be an under-representation of handicapped language-minority students.

The Pre-Referral Process

This is a screening and intervention process that involves identifying problems experienced by students in the regular classroom, identifying the source of the problems (student, teacher, curriculum, environment, etc.), and taking steps to resolve the problems in the context of the regular classroom. This process seeks to eliminate unnecessary and inappropriate referrals to special education.

Assessment and Referral

A referral to special education should happen only after all other avenues have been explored, and you conclude that the student's needs cannot be met by the regular education program. Confirmation of a handicap and identification of its specific nature are provided by a comprehensive assessment of the student. All referrals of LEP students to special education should include the results of tests in the child's native language and in English and all records and reports on which the referral is based. Verify the appropriateness of the school's curriculum, the qualifications and experience of the teacher, and the appropriateness of instruction provided to the student (for example, continuity, proper sequencing, the teaching of prerequisite skills). Document the child's problems across settings and personnel, and provide evidence that the child's difficulties are present in both languages and that he or she has not made satisfactory progress despite having received competent instruction. However, because many of these children are losing or have not fully developed first language skills, it may be difficult to ascertain that the learning difficulty exists across languages. The ESL teacher, bilingual education teacher, and classroom teacher who work regularly with the LEP student will have the most important school-based observations and input in the assessment process. This, coupled with input from parents and guardians, becomes the foundation for the assessment process.

Excerpted from Referring Language-minority students to Special Education, *ERIC Digest, P. Olson, 1991, Center for Applied Linguistics*

Why Migrant Students Are Under-Identified

Federal guidelines suggest that, like other populations, 12% of migrant students may need special education services. However, despite the fact that migrant students perform significantly below their non-migrant peers on measures of educational performance, educators report that migrant students are significantly under-identified and under-served in special education programs (National Center for Farmworker Health, 1997; National Commission on Migrant Education, 1992; Salend, 1997). Additionally, when identified, migrant students tend to receive special education services much later than their non-migrant counterparts. (Salend, 1998).

It is important to check whether a migrant student has an IEP from another school system so that your district may provide continuous and appropriate services. One of the most common reasons why migrant students are under-identified is that they leave a school system before an IEP has been fully developed. Or, a school system may refrain from assessing a migrant student because it knows that the student will not be in the area for very long. Being proactive, flexible, and seeking out information from previous schools is essential if a mobile student is to receive the special education services that he or she deserves in a timely matter.

Characteristics of Students with Learning Disabilities and Limited English Proficient Students

Indicator	Cultural or Linguistic Explanation
Discrepancy between verbal and performance measures on I.Q. tests	Students not proficient in the language of the I.Q. tests are often able to complete non-verbal tasks correctly. (Cummins, 1984)
Academic learning difficulties	LEP (limited English proficient) students often experience difficulty with academic concepts and language because these ideas are more abstract. (Cummins, 1984)
Language disorders	LEP students often exhibit language disfluencies. These are a natural part of second language development. (Oller, 1983)
Perceptual disorders	Even the ability to perceive and organize information can be distorted when students are learning a second language. (DeBlassie, 1983)
Social/emotional problems	LEP students experience social trauma and emotional difficulties. (DeBlassie & Franco, 1983)
Attention and memory problems	LEP students may have few prior experiences on which to relate new information; they find it difficult to attend to and retain it. (DeBlassie, 1983)

Adapted from Mercer, C.D. (1987). Students with Learning Disabilities. *Merrill. Columbus, OH*

9. You Are Not Alone

It is very important to develop a working relationship with your English as a second language (ESL) or bilingual teacher. They have a great deal of knowledge about the students and their level of proficiency in English. They will also provide you with valuable information about a student's background and what kinds of instructional and assessment modifications will be the most effective. There is an example of a lesson that is team taught by a science teacher and an ESL teacher in Chapter 7 (page 132). ESL/bilingual teachers may only be in your school for part of the day, but they will do their best to help you. In this era of rising standards, it is more important than ever that subject area teachers work closely with ESL/bilingual teachers to ensure that ESL instruction is effectively supplementing the mainstream curriculum.

Two Major Goals of Collaboration:

1. Schools with bilingual/ESL programs will improve coordination between the regular classrooms and the bilingual classrooms in order to better serve LEP students.
2. Teachers in both the mainstream classroom and the bilingual/ESL classroom will improve their competence in providing instruction to LEP students.

Why is Collaboration Worth the Trouble?

It's good for schools:

- Forming new partnerships to educate America's children is in the spirit of education reform.
- If curriculum and instruction are not aligned across the two programs, LEP students cannot receive a comprehensive and coordinated educational program.

It's good for teachers:

- Teachers often socially divide themselves into two groups: the mainstream teachers and the bilingual/ESL teachers. This type of school culture is isolating and can lead to infrequent communication and cause hit-or-miss education for LEP students.
- Often, there is no structure built into the teaching schedule to allow for teacher collaboration. This results in a school environment devoid of the social advantages of communicating about one's teaching.
- Regular conversations between mainstream and bilingual/ESL teachers can enhance discussion and increase knowledge of language and cultural influences on students' learning.

It's good for students:

- Integrating students through special projects and events will increase LEP students' exposure to English, ease their acculturation to the all English-speaking classroom, and result in increased cross-cultural understanding.
- Non-LEP students will be enriched by the experiences embedded in interaction with culturally and linguistically diverse classmates.

It's good for parents:

- If bilingual and mainstream teachers collaborate to communicate with language-minority parents, home-school relationships will be strengthened.

How Do Your Schools Rate?

Please consider the following list of behaviors and activities. Rate them in rank order from one to nine (using each number once).

One = Least frequently observed
Nine = Most frequently observed

1. _____ ESL and mainstream teachers jointly develop curriculum and instruction.

2. _____ Mainstream teachers understand and are sensitive to cultural differences.

3. _____ ESL and mainstream teachers observe each other's classes.

4. _____ Multicultural concepts are infused into the mainstream curriculum.

5. _____ LEP and non-LEP students jointly participate in school events, projects, and activities.

6. _____ ESL and mainstream teachers hold joint parent conferences.

7. _____ ESL and mainstream teachers regularly discuss LEP students' progress.

8. _____ The school's physical environment reflects a variety of heritages.

9. _____ Mainstream teachers utilize strategies to develop English proficiency.

Ideas for Collaboration

- ESL/bilingual and mainstream teachers hold regular meetings to discuss individual students' progress.
- ESL/bilingual and mainstream teachers participate jointly in field trips.
- Cultural information is shared at regular teacher meetings for the purpose of clarifying students' behavior and sensitizing all teachers to cultural differences.
- ESL/bilingual and mainstream teachers of the same grade plan units of instruction together based on an integrated thematic approach to learning.
- ESL and general program peer tutoring projects pair LEP students with non-LEP students of the same age across classrooms.
- Peer and cross-age dialogue journals between LEP and non-LEP students help improve LEP students' writing in English.
- Cross-age "big brother/big sister" projects bring together English proficient eleventh- or twelfth-graders and LEP ninth- or tenth-graders for the purpose of sharing knowledge, mentoring, helping with schoolwork, etc.
- The school's physical environment reflects the different cultures of the LEP students.
- The music curriculum is revised to incorporate songs and musical elements from a variety of cultures.
- Team teaching and joint classroom activities and projects integrate LEP and non-LEP students.

Classroom to ESL Instructor Communication Form

Student Name ______________________________

Date ______________________________

Class ______________________________

1. Please assess the student's progress during the past month.
   Please circle one of the numbers (1-5 with 5 being the highest).

Oral Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
Reading Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
Completes Writing Assignments	1	2	3	4	5
Works Independently	1	2	3	4	5
Asks for help when needed	1	2	3	4	5
Successful completion of tests/assessments	1	2	3	4	5

2. What would you like the ESL teacher to help the student with during the coming weeks or months?

Comments:

10. What Does the Law Say?

Federal policy guidelines for meeting the needs of LEP students

In the United States, all children have the right to attend school and to receive a quality education. It is the responsibility of the schools to provide an equal opportunity for that quality education to all students, including students who are learning English as a second language. The federal government does not mandate any single approach to teaching limited English proficient students. However, various civil rights laws and court decisions establish that schools must provide some type of assistance to enable limited English proficient students to progress academically while they are learning English.

Special Alternative Language Programs

As part of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Congress enacted Title VI prohibiting discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin in programs or activities that receive federal financial assistance. In 1970, the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) interpreted Title VI to require school divisions receiving federal aid of any kind to provide special alternative language programs to ensure that limited English proficient (LEP) students have meaningful access to the schools' programs. The May 25th OCR Memorandum stated in part:

> *Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students.*

In 1974 the Lau v. Nichols suit was brought by parents of Chinese-speaking students against the San Francisco school system, alleging that those students suffered from discrimination because of the school district's failure to provide special instruction for them, as required by the 1970 decision of the Office for Civil Rights. The case was decided in favor of the plaintiffs, but no specific remedies were mandated. The case eventually reached the Supreme Court, whose unanimous decision established that:

> *Equality of educational opportunity is not achieved by merely providing all students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education. Basic English skills are at the very core of what these public schools teach.... We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful.*

In Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563 94 S. Ct. 786 (1974), the Supreme Court upheld the Office for Civil Rights' interpretation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 requiring school districts to take affirmative steps to rectify language deficiencies that have the effect of excluding national origin minority children from participating in the educational program offered.

Compliance Standards

In Castañeda v. Pickard (1981), the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals set forth a three-part test for determining whether a school district has taken the appropriate actions to overcome language barriers confronting language-minority students. The three parts of the test are:

1. Whether the school system is pursuing a program based on sound educational theory
2. Whether the program based on the theory is actually in practice
3. Whether the program is succeeding and produces the results that indicate the LEP student's language barrier is actually being overcome

By the mid-1980s, OCR redesigned its Title VI compliance standards. The new, and still current, OCR policy permits school districts to use any method or program that has proven successful or that promises to be successful.

Excerpted from Clarification of Legal Responsibilities for Limited English Proficient Students, *Virginia Department of Education, 1992*

The United States Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights recommends ways that school districts can be sure that all students are provided an equal and quality education.

1. School districts must know how many limited English proficient children are in their schools.
2. School districts must ensure that all LEP students are being taught to read, write, speak, and understand English.
3. If students are not proficient in speaking, reading, writing, and understanding English, testing them in English may not accurately show their abilities or what they have learned. Furthermore, districts must make sure that LEP students are not assigned to classes for the mentally disabled just because they are not proficient in English.
4. School districts have the obligation to notify all parents of school activities. In order for limited English proficient parents to be included, notices should be in a language they understand.

Excerpted from If Your Child Learns in Two Languages, *NCBE, 2000*

Students at Hispanic Dropout Project Student Leaders Forum, New York:

"My life, my heritage has been a cycle of poverty, of goals that were never achieved; I want to break that cycle. I want to achieve for my family, so that my parents can be proud of me."

"I want to be a change agent. Things don't have to be like these stereotypes."

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11. Do You Want to Learn Some Spanish?

If you studied Spanish in high school and/or college, here is some vocabulary that may refresh your memory. If you never studied Spanish, it is never too late to start!

One way to ensure that your Spanish-speaking students will feel welcomed and that their language (and therefore who they are) is valued is by attempting to communicate with them in Spanish. You do not have to be fluent to show an interest in your students' home language. A gesture as simple as asking them how to say in Spanish something that is part of the lesson will help them to feel comfortable and accepted.

Make sure that you ask each student the name that he or she prefers to be called—some students prefer their Spanish names and others prefer an Americanized version. Getting the name right seems like a small thing, but remember what it feels like to you when someone mispronounces or misspells your name.

Some of these everyday words and vocabulary expressions may come in handy if you find yourself without a translator. So, have some fun, and your students will help you with pronunciation.

Good luck! ¡Buena suerte!

Spanish—Español

Spanish Phrases: Basic Vocabulary

Office / En la oficina de la escuela

chair	la silla
counter	el mostrador
desk	el escritorio
envelope	el sobre
lunch ticket	el boleto del almuerzo
note	la nota
paper	el papel
form	la forma
pencil	el lápiz
table	la mesa
ticket	el boleto
telephone	el teléfono
bus	el autobús

In the halls / en los corredóres

downstairs	abajo
drinking fountain	la fuente
floor	el piso
left side	el lado izquierdo
right side	el lado derecho
stairs	las escaleras
upstairs	arriba

Classroom / En el salón de clase

teacher	el maestro, la maestra
book	el libro
chalk	la tiza
pen	la pluma, el bolígrafo
homework	la tarea
chalkboard	el pizarrón
clock	el reloj
door(s)	la puerta, las puertas
eraser	el borrador
wall(s)	la pared, las paredes
window(s)	la ventana, las ventanas
ruler	la regla
bathroom	el baño
page	la página
paragraph	el párrafo
permission slip	el permiso
Math	la clase de matemáticas
Science	la clase de ciencia
Social studies	los estudios sociales
English	la clase de inglés
Geography	la clase de geografía
Art	la clase de arte
Music	la clase de música
PE	la educación física

Colors / Colores

red	rojo
yellow	amarillo
black	negro
brown	café
green	verde
blue	azul
white	blanco

Days of the week / Días de la semana

Monday	lunes
Tuesday	martes
Wednesday	miércoles
Thursday	jueves
Friday	viernes
Saturday	sábado
Sunday	domingo

Months / Meses

January	enero
February	febrero
March	marzo
April	abril
May	mayo
June	junio
July	julio
August	agosto
September	septiembre
October	octubre
November	noviembre
December	diciembre

Helpful phrases / Expresiones útiles

Hello	Hola
Good morning	Buenos días
How are you?	¿Cómo estás?
What is your name?	¿Cómo te llamas?
My name is	Me llamo
Do you understand?	¿Comprendes?
Yes, I understand	Sí, comprendo
No, I don't understand	No, no comprendo
Where is?	¿Dónde está?
Where is your note?	¿Dónde está tu nota?
You have to bring a note when you are absent	Tienes que traer una nota cuando faltes a clase
Please fill out this form	Favor de llenar esta forma
This way, please	Por acá, por favor
That way, please	Por allá, por favor
Get up	Levántate
Work	Trabaja
Let's go outside	Vamos afuera
Read	Lee
Sit down	Siéntate
Speak	Habla
Be quiet	Silencio
Write	Escribe
Stop, quit it	Quita, Deja
Draw	Dibuja
Eat	Come
Open your book	Abre el libro
Close your book	Cierra el libro
Take out your homework	Saca la tarea
Turn in your homework	Entrega la tarea
Where are you going?	¿Adónde vas?
Don't hit anyone	No le pegues a nadie
Don't run	No corras
Go to your class please	Vete a tu clase por favor
Please	Por favor
Many thanks	Muchas gracias
Good, fine	Bien
Very good!	¡Muy bien!
Goodbye	Adiós
See you tomorrow	Hasta mañana
Please don't come to school before 8 a.m. (8:30)	Favor de no llegar a la escuela antes de las ocho (ocho y media)

Commands

Listen	Escucha
Look	Mira
Give me	Dame
It's time to:	Es la hora de:
It's time to (work, study, read)	Es la hora de (trabajar, estudiar, leer)

Numbers

1—uno
2—dos
3—tres
4—cuatro
5—cinco
6—seis
7—siete
8—ocho
9—nueve
10—diez
11—once
12—doce
13—trece
14—catorce
15—quince
16—diez y seis
17—diez y siete
18—diez y ocho
19—diez y nueve
20—veinte
30—treinta
40—cuarenta
50—cincuenta
60—sesenta
70—setenta
80—ochenta
90—noventa
100—cien
1000—mil
5000—cinco mil
100,000—cien mil
1,000,000—un millón

12. How Schools Can Help Hispanic Students Succeed

Much of what Hispanic students need to succeed academically applies to all students regardless of ethnicity. But beyond basic school reform, there are some strategies schools can use to help both Hispanic students and their parents not only survive the secondary school years, but also thrive. Here is a synopsis of researchers' recommendations for improving Hispanic student achievement:

- **Emphasize prevention of problems.** Most students show warning signs when struggling academically or considering leaving school. If, for example, a student has two unexcused absences in a row, schools should contact parents directly.
- **Personalize programs and services for Hispanic students.** Connecting with adults and establishing mentoring relationships can make a significant difference, particularly for high school students. Some strategies for achieving this include reducing class sizes, creating separate houses or academies within a large high school, teachers "adopting" a group of students, and older students mentoring younger ones.
- **Make schools accessible to parents.** This may require providing transportation to meetings, going to homes to meet with parents who do not have phones, providing translators, and sending home correspondence written in Spanish and in a way parents can understand—clear and free from jargon, acronyms and "educationese."
- **Provide parents with frequent feedback about their children's academic progress.** Many Hispanic parents are unaware of the school's expectations for their children. Standards must be communicated clearly and repeatedly.
- **Provide after-school tutoring and enrichment related to in-class assignments.** Trained volunteers offer another opportunity for adult-student interaction. Extended day programs that supplement classroom instruction are crucial to ensuring that English language learners and migrant students close the gap as quickly as possible.
- **Set high academic and behavioral standards for students.** Hispanic students should be actively recruited into the highest level classes and provided extra support as needed.
- **Provide intensive academic counseling that includes parents.** Encouraging college attendance requires early and regular attention to courses taken and preparation for standardized testing, as well as parental support and input.
- **Incorporate Hispanic culture and traditions into the classroom when possible.** Students should feel that their cultural background is welcomed, appreciated, and respected at school.
- **Replicate programs that have proven effective.** In school districts across the country, targeted efforts are improving Hispanic achievement and lowering dropout rates. Schools do not need to start from scratch. The Hispanic Dropout Project's 1998 report, for example, lists nearly 50 successful programs nationwide. *No More Excuses: The Final Report of the Hispanic Dropout Project* is available on the Web at www.ed.gov/offices/OBEMLA/hdprepo.pdf, or by calling 1-800-USA-LEARN.

Excerpted from The Harvard Education Letter, *September/October 1998 References*

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Chapter 3 At-a-Glance

Chapter 3 is filled with practical, research-based instructional strategies that are recommended for use with English language learners. As you will see, most of the suggestions will not require a great deal of extra work on your part, and it is likely that you are already using many of the strategies such as semantic mapping and cooperative learning.

Chapter 3 features four sections that provide practical tips that should help you to improve the comprehension and performance of your ELLs.

The first section covers the topic of culture in the classroom from a variety of angles including "creating a school climate that appreciates diversity," "selecting texts and curriculum materials," and an explanation of the difference between "deep" culture and "surface" culture.

The second section is dedicated to the "linguistically controlled content area lesson," which involves a variety of strategies that help to ensure that your ELLs will comprehend the key vocabulary and essential content of your lessons. By focusing on the language in which your major concepts are presented and tailoring the level of difficulty to the proficiency level of your ELLs, you will enhance their capacity to understand and learn.

The third section consists of recommended classroom strategies. These strategies include: cooperative learning, the language experience approach, dialogue journals, and questioning techniques. Each strategy is outlined, and there are specific examples of how to use each one to benefit ELLs.

The fourth section consists of practical tips on how to help your ELLs succeed in the content area classroom. The suggestions are grouped under the headings of: "through listening, "through speaking," "through reading," "through writing," and "through note-taking."

The final section has a modification checklist that you can use to evaluate your own use of the recommended strategies in the areas of instruction and assessment. There is also a model lesson plan that will help you to see how some of the strategies highlighted in this chapter can be successfully applied.

Every word or utterance in a second language is a step forward and should be seen for what it accomplishes rather than for what it fails to do.

—Else V. Hamayan

CHAPTER 3:
Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the Mainstream Classroom

In most school districts, English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual staff and resources are limited. LEP students may be "pulled out" of the mainstream classroom for brief periods of time to receive intensive English instruction, but in reality, the students spend most of the school day in their regular classrooms. Classroom teachers can use many strategies and resources to help LEP students feel welcome and to promote their linguistic and cognitive development. Secondary English language learners (Grades 7–12), especially recent immigrants, face major difficulties in acquiring English. They arrive in the United States at 11 to 18 years of age with different levels of literacy, education, and language proficiency.

Compared with elementary students, secondary ELL students have fewer years to acquire the English language essential to succeed in their required subjects. The demands of the curriculum and the short time available for learning English put secondary ELL students significantly behind their native English-speaking peers in academic achievement (Collier, 1987; Minicucci & Olsen, 1992). Despite these obstacles, research tells us that secondary students do have some advantages in acquiring English. Jim Cummins (1981) states:

> *Older learners who are more cognitively mature and whose L1 (native language) proficiency is better developed would acquire cognitively demanding aspects of L2 (second language) proficiency more rapidly than younger learners. The only area where research suggests older learners may not have an advantage is pronunciation, which, significantly, appears to be one of the least cognitively demanding aspects of both L1 and L2 proficiency.*

Many secondary students arrive better able to comprehend and speak English than read and write it. Others may be able to understand the written word but have little or no ability to comprehend oral English. Finally, secondary students enter U.S. schools with varying levels of education in their native language. Some arrive with no prior education; others arrive with levels of education equal or superior to those of native English speakers. Research shows that students with strong academic and linguistic skills in their first or native language will acquire a second language more easily than students with weaker skills.

Secondary school students face demanding academic tasks. These students must make acceptable scores on English language proficiency tests. They also take a number of standardized English language tests in reading, mathematics, and science. In order to graduate, they must earn the required number of high school credits. Each of these tasks requires a thorough knowledge of English. Many students lack the English language and test-taking skills required to do well on these tasks.

Secondary students' daily schedules also present a major challenge. Students take from five to seven classes a day, many of which may be taught entirely in English. Trying to make sense of academic subjects taught in an unfamiliar language is exhausting for just a few minutes, let alone for five or six hours of instruction. In addition, subjects such as physical science, chemistry, world cultures, economics, algebra, and geometry require high levels of academic language. Added to these demands is the high reading level of most secondary texts and materials.

Preliterate students have an exceedingly difficult time being successful with the typical middle and high school course offerings. Their challenges multiply greatly in content courses that rely on academic proficiency in English. Meeting graduation requirements during the normal high school time frame is a nearly impossible task for the preliterate student.

ELL students who enter school for the first time in the U.S. at the high school level with hopes of going directly to a college or university upon graduation face their own set of challenges. These students must take classes designated for college credit, many of which may be beyond their language ability. They may be able to handle the content in their primary language, but not in English. Educators need to respond to these challenges by using the best instructional strategies in order to provide all students access to academic subjects required for graduation.

Practices of Successful Teachers of Language-Minority Students

- Rather than relying solely on language to facilitate learning, these teachers use a variety of activities and learning opportunities for students (e.g., visuals, physical activity, and nonverbal cues).
- When they do use language, they do not rely solely on English, but allow and encourage students to use their native languages as needed to facilitate learning and participation.
- When these teachers use English, they modify its complexity and content so that students understand and can participate in classroom activities.
- They also do not rely only on themselves as the sources of knowledge and learning but encourage interaction among students; bring in older and younger, more proficient and less proficient students from other classes; and involve paraprofessionals and community members in classroom activities.
- They encourage authentic and meaningful communication and interaction about course content among students and between themselves and students.
- They hold high expectations of their students, challenging them to tackle complex concepts and requiring them to think critically, rather than eliciting a preponderance of one-word responses to factual questions that do not require higher order thinking.
- In content classes, they focus instruction squarely on the content itself, not on English. At the same time, they build English language development into their instruction in all classes, including content classes.
- They recognize student success overtly and frequently.

1. Creating a School Climate that Appreciates Diversity

Student attitudes about school and their sense of self are shaped by what happens both in the classroom and throughout the school. The benefits gained by effectively incorporating Mexican-American (and/or other cultures') history and culture into classroom instruction will be greatly diluted unless the school as a whole visibly appreciates not only the Mexican-American culture but also the students who represent that culture (Banks & Banks, 1989).

For example, comments such as, "I love living in the Southwest—the architecture is great; the lifestyle is wonderful," and so forth, may be common in a given school. This same school may also feature cultural activities, such as folk dancing or a Spanish club, and a social studies curriculum that reflects Mexican-American contributions. Yet in this school, when teachers describe their Mexican-American students, they may also claim that students are "not competitive," "not goal-oriented," or not "future-directed." Some observers describe such attitudes as valuing "lo mexicano" (Mexican things), but not "los mexicanos" (Mexican peoples) (Paz, 1987). Students can make few gains in a school environment that purports to value students' cultures but disdains students of that culture (Escamilla, 1992).

Migrant students have difficulty recognizing their culture and primary language in the words and images they experience in schools and classrooms. Although the migrant lifestyle is characterized by hard and often hazardous work, low wages, substandard housing, and social isolation, the positive contributions and strengths of migrant workers and their families are often overlooked. For example, the migrant lifestyle has provided many migrant workers and their families with a broad range of experiences with different people and geographical regions throughout the United States. Their children also have an understanding of the challenges of adjusting to and appreciating various cultural norms and communication styles.

Culture in content areas

Culture is content for every day, not just special days. Use every opportunity you can find to communicate your multicultural perspective. In social studies, supplement your text with materials that show the history and contributions of many peoples. In math and science, take into account other countries' notation systems. Incorporate arts and crafts styles from many countries into your fine arts program. Read literature from and about your students' countries of birth.

Misunderstandings

Ask students to think of incidents that involved some kind of cultural misunderstanding and to share them with the class. Did the misunderstanding involve words, body language, rules of time or space, levels of formality, or stereotypes about a culture? Try to use the incidents to help all students see the importance of being flexible in encounters with people from another culture.

Points to remember about culture

- What seems logical, sensible, important, and reasonable to a person in one culture may seem irrational, stupid, and unimportant to an outsider.
- Feelings of apprehension, loneliness, and lack of confidence are common when visiting another culture.
- When people talk about other cultures, they tend to describe the differences and not the similarities.
- It requires experience as well as study to understand the subtleties of another culture.
- Understanding another culture is a continuous and not a discrete process.

Selecting Texts and Curriculum Materials

There are many materials currently available to teach about Mexican-American culture and history. But, as Banks and Banks (1989) have noted, many of these materials limit their presentation of the Mexican-American experience to the discussion of isolated holidays and events.

Another pitfall of some curriculum materials is that they tend to present historical figures in two extremes. One extreme is the "hero representation," which describes a few exceptional historical figures as superhumans, who overcame insurmountable odds to achieve greatness. More often, though, social studies curricula depict the Mexican-American people as helpless victims of poverty and discrimination, who largely reside in urban barrios or rural migrant camps.

This dichotomy of heroes and victims produces a distorted account of the Mexican-American experience in the U.S. Perpetuating stereotypes of Mexican-Americans is harmful to all students in a classroom, but poses special dangers to students of Mexican-American heritage. The view that only the exceptional succeed, while the majority fall victim—combined with sporadic and inaccurate treatment of the contributions of Mexican-Americans in the curriculum—may lead students to conclude that if they are not truly exceptional (and most of us are not), there is no hope for them, and their destined "place" is an urban barrio or rural migrant camp. Further, students may erroneously conclude that their heritage has contributed very little to the development of the Western Hemisphere.

Failing to present a more realistic picture of Mexican-American people and their contributions leaves students with a dearth of realistic role models. Most Mexican-American students are not likely to achieve the greatness of a Cesar Chavez, nor will they likely live in a state of abject poverty. As a result, many may find it difficult to identify with Mexican-American culture as presented in most social studies curricula. This situation defeats one purpose of integrating Mexican-American studies into the curriculum—to develop a sense of ethnic pride.

Educators should look for curriculum materials that present a more considered view of the Mexican-American experience and history. Some excellent examples are *Mexican-Americans*, J. Moore, 1976, Prentice-Hall and *The Mexican-American in American History*, J. Nova, 1973, New York, American Book Company. Such a view includes not only heroes and victims, but "regular people" as well. Such a perspective depicts diversity. There is not a single Mexican-American culture, just as there is not a single American culture. Equally important, this view includes the notion that cultures change over time. Effective instructional materials include ideas related to the contemporary, as well as the historical experience, of the culture being studied (Escamilla, 1992). (See Chapter 4, pp. 95-96 for examples of books with diverse perspectives.)

Excerpted from Integrating Mexican-American History and Culture into the Social Studies Classroom, *1992, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools*

Tips for Using Language-Minority Students as Resources in Your Classroom

- Make use of your students' language and cultural knowledge.
- Create a supportive environment in the classroom so that the language-minority students feel they have a lot to offer and feel comfortable sharing with classmates.
- Consider anthropological topics that move beyond geography and general history of students' countries (although these have a role, too). Focus at times on human behavior: family structures, housing arrangements, fuel/food gathering, etc.
- Have students bring in traditional handicrafts, art work, and other locally produced products from their countries.
- Ask students to compare and contrast aspects of American culture with aspects of their own culture.

Since many of your language-minority students may have little experience and/or knowledge about their native countries, give them the opportunity to include their parents and relatives as resources for the classroom. Invite parents to talk about such topics as language, culture, family structure, customs, or agricultural products in their country. Assign students to conduct oral interviews of family members or community members from their ethnic group to get first-person accounts of, for example, what it was like in Vietnam during the Vietnam War or what life is like for an agricultural worker in rural Guatemala. You can follow the Foxfire interviewing model. The Foxfire approach to teaching and learning links course content to the community in which the learners live (www.foxfire.org). (See Chapter 6, p. 117 for more on oral histories.)

Encourage native speakers of other languages to serve as language resources for you and the other students. Your students' multilingual skills can be a real asset to the class. For example, when teaching a unit about agricultural crops, find out how to say *corn*, *wheat*, *rice*, and *coffee* in the languages of your students. Are any of the words similar to English? You can use your students as "native informants" if you want to teach an "introduction to language" unit where students are introduced to all the languages spoken in the class.

Have students work on research reports in heterogeneous, cooperative groups so that language-minority students serve as resources in each group.

Deep and Surface Culture

Many people are aware of surface differences between cultures—differences in food, clothing, and celebrations. These are the aspects of culture that teachers and students often enjoy exploring in the classroom. However, it is the hidden elements of culture—"deep culture"—that cause the most serious misunderstandings. It is important to be aware of those hidden values, beliefs, and attitudes that can interfere with a student's ability to function in the classroom and the teacher's ability to reach the student.

Elements of deep culture include:

- **Ceremony**
  What a person is to say and do on particular occasions. In some cultures, people commonly greet each other with kisses. American forms may seem cold and uncaring. On the other hand, in other cultures people almost never touch each other and may find even pats of approval unusual and upsetting.
- **Gesture and kinesics**
  Forms of nonverbal communication or reinforced speech, such as the use of the eyes, the hands, and the body. For example, insulting hand gestures differ from culture to culture. The "OK" sign in America, with thumb and forefinger forming a circle, is a very bad gesture in some Middle Eastern cultures. Pointing at people is taboo in many cultures.
- **Grooming and presence**
  Cultural differences in personal behavior and appearance, such as laughter, smile, voice quality, gait, poise, cosmetics, dress, etc., may seem superficial, but they are the most immediately noticeable features when members of cultures meet. Members of some cultures seem loud and boisterous to members of quieter, more sedate cultures. These differences can lead to alienation between the cultures. This also explains some differences in amount and kind of class participation. In most Asian cultures, for example, people wait for a pause in a conversation before entering it. Many Americans, however, "overlap"—that is, one starts speaking as the other finishes. In group work, then, Asian students may rarely see an opportunity to enter the discussion.
- **Precedence**
  What are accepted manners toward older persons, peers, and younger persons. Many other cultures show great respect to teachers, but that respect may be reflected in different ways. For example, in many cultures, students look down when addressed by a teacher as a sign of respect. Most Americans expect young people to look directly at them and may see the downward look as disrespectful.
- **Rewards and privileges**
  Attitudes toward motivation, merit, achievement, service, social position, etc. In many cultures, there is less emphasis on individual achievement and success with more importance given to the good of the group. Members of these cultures may respond poorly to the kinds of incentives often offered in U.S. society but may be motivated by group work and group goals.
- **Space and proxemics**
  Attitudes toward self and land; the accepted distances between individuals within a culture. Americans generally require more personal space than members of other cultures and become uncomfortable when someone moves into that space. Backing away from members of other cultures signals rejection and may set off a chain of cultural misunderstandings.
- **Concepts of time**
  Attitudes toward being early, on time, or late. The rules for time in any culture are complex and hard to determine. For example, while North Americans think of themselves as always being "on time," in fact, we have different rules that apply to various events such as dinner parties, cocktail parties, meetings, and other events.

Excerpted from Mexican American Culture in the Bilingual Education Classroom, *Frank Gonzales, University of Texas at Austin, 1978*

2. Helping LEP Students Adjust to the Classroom

LEP students are faced with the challenge of learning English as well as the school culture. Teachers can help them adjust to their new language and environment in the following ways:

Announce the lesson's objectives and activities

It is important to write the objectives on the board and review them orally before class begins. It is also helpful to place the lesson in the context of its broader theme and preview upcoming lessons.

Write legibly

Teachers need to remember that some students have low levels of literacy or are unaccustomed to the Roman alphabet.

Develop and maintain routines

Routines will help LEP students anticipate what will happen (e.g., types of assignments, ways of giving instructions) without relying solely on language cues.

List and review instructions step-by-step

Before students begin an activity, teachers should familiarize them with the entire list of instructions. Then, teachers should have students work on each step individually before moving on to the next step. This procedure is ideal for teaching students to solve math and science word problems.

Present frequent summations of the salient points of the lesson

Teachers should (1) try to use visual reviews with lists and charts, (2) paraphrase the salient points where appropriate, and (3) have students provide oral summaries.

Present information in varied ways

By using multiple media in the classroom, teachers reduce reliance on language and place the information in a context that is more comprehensible to the students.

Excerpted from Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques, *Deborah Short, 1991, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education*

3. Recommended Classroom Strategies

Using a learner-centered approach to teaching provides LEP students with a greater opportunity to interact meaningfully with educational materials as they acquire English and learn subject matter.

Most of the following recommended strategies are promoted as good teaching strategies for all students. This is an important point because teachers don't usually have the time to prepare a separate lesson for their LEP students and/or to work with them regularly on an individual basis. In addition, using a variety of instructional strategies will ensure that students who represent a wide spectrum of learning styles will benefit.

A. Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning has grown in popularity because it has proven to be effective for both academically advanced and lower-achieving students. In addition to promoting learning, this system fosters respect and friendship among heterogeneous groups of students. For this reason, cooperative learning offers much to teachers who are trying to involve LEP students in all-English classroom activities. Also, many language minority migrant students come from cultures that encourage cooperative interaction, and they may be more comfortable in an environment of shared learning.

Maximizing Language Acquisition

Why should middle and high school teachers use cooperative learning in their classrooms? Secondary students need the maximum amount of time possible for comprehending and using the English language in a low-risk environment in order to approach the proficiency level of their peers. Cooperative learning provides the structure for this to happen. Teachers should consider the question, "What is the best use of my students' time?" In a classroom with approximately 30 students who need to interact and negotiate meaning, a teacher should take advantage of this environment for language acquisition. Reading and writing answers to questions can be done at home, thereby providing more time in the classroom for interactive, cooperative structures in which students are learning from each other.

In cooperative teams, students with lower levels of proficiency can dialogue with students with higher levels in order to negotiate the meaning of the content in a lesson. Preliterate students can begin to build a strong foundation in oral proficiency as they acquire literacy skills. All students can receive a great deal of practice in language and interpersonal skills that are so necessary for participation in higher education or the job market. Remember that school is often your migrant students' only opportunity to develop their oral proficiency in English.

Maximizing Social Development

The social development needs of ELL students entering secondary school are different from those of elementary children. By middle and high school, student peer groups are well-defined. ELL students find it very difficult to be accepted into these well-established groups. The high mobility of many migrant students makes "fitting in" even more of a challenge. Research shows that children frequently choose friends from within their own ethnic group. Furthermore, friends are often selected from within these groups based on their length of residence in the U.S. At the secondary level, these friendship patterns often result in conflict within and between ethnic groups (Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986).

Cooperative learning approaches give ELL students the chance to develop positive, productive relationships with both majority and minority students. Through cooperative learning, students serve as teachers of other students or as experts on certain topics. Cooperative teams may offer some students the academic support that will help them find success.

In summary, cooperative learning provides a structure for giving content support for students from many different language backgrounds. It gives students opportunities to learn from one another rather than receive information from the teacher or text alone. Appropriate cooperative tasks stimulate students to higher levels of thinking, preparing them for academic learning and testing. Cooperative learning activities will help English language learners develop the language and academic skills they will need in order to participate effectively in mainstream settings.

Excerpted from Cooperative Learning in the Secondary School: Maximizing Language Acquisition, Academic Achievement, and Social Development, *Daniel Holt, Barbara Chips, Diane Wallace, 1991, NCBE Program Information Guide Series, No. 12*

Language Functions and Social Skills

Many cooperative learning researchers and trainers emphasize prosocial behaviors, ways students cooperate with each other, such as encouraging others when they ask for clarification or giving explanations and different ways to request (or give) clarification. Prosocial behaviors are introduced by direct teaching, reinforced by group interdependence, and may be integrated into student worksheets. Coehlo (1988) observed that many social skills, thus emphasized, resemble language notions and functions important for students acquiring English (Table 1). Language notions are concepts that may be expressed in different ways within and across languages. Synonyms such as "salt" and "sodium chloride" and expressions such as "Please pass the salt" and "Pass the salt, please" are different ways to express the same basic notions within English. Students acquiring English may need practice with different ways to convey similar concepts. The restating, explaining, and clarifying that can occur during cooperative learning interactions help develop familiarity with comprehending and producing language notions. Emphasizing ways to restate meanings, then, can help students develop competence with language notions.

Language functions refer to ways we can use language to achieve a communicative purpose. Variations in language forms can carry out the same function. For example, "Ahem," "Well," and "Ah," can all function as attention holders during conversation or as ways to break into someone else's speech. "What is ______?" "I don't understand ______" and "Is ______ a ______?" can function to elicit clarification, explanation, or elaboration. When students are taught prosocial skills such as asking for and giving explanations, they are also learning important language functions that can be used in situations outside class. One way to help students acquiring English is to teach gambits that support the prosocial skills being emphasized. Gambits are formulas used in conversation to convey certain communicative purposes. Special gambits might be introduced or reviewed before students begin working with a particular cooperative learning task; they could be integrated into student worksheets as reminders of ways to ask for information and could be emphasized with "process sheets." Teaching ELLs to utilize "gambits" will provide them with language structures they can use to both obtain information and learn colloquial uses of English.

Language notions and functions may be particularly important for students acquiring English with social studies topics that involve abstract, complex, unfamiliar, or low-consensus lesson material.

Cooperative learning structures can be used to teach and to build awareness of language functions. For example, Solve-Pair-Share could be used to increase awareness about function and to identify some appropriate gambits. Students think of different ways to say things that could accomplish the purpose (getting an explanation, for example) and share those ideas with partners. Partners then report to their team group what they learned, restating or summarizing their partner's ideas. Or, Roundtables (see p. 59) could be used to create lists of gambits to support functions, for review or for teambuilding. Teams list as many gambits as possible within a certain time limit (for example, five minutes). Teams report their scores (total number of gambits listed) to the class. Each team discusses how it might improve the team score. Teams then enter Roundtable a second time and report the new scores. Improvement scoring (increased percentage increase) emphasizes teambuilding. Each team (and the class) now has its own "menu" of gambits to support the stated function.

Excerpted from Cooperative Learning and Social Studies, *R.E. W-B Olsen, 1992*

Table 3-1: Gambits to Support Social-Skills Language Functions

(see Keller & Warner [1988] for more on gambits and activities)

Social Skill: Obtaining Information

Function	Gambit
Asking for Information	I'd like to know... I'm interested in... Would you tell me...? Do you know...? Could you find out...? What is...? Could I ask (May I ask)...?
Requesting Clarification	Help! I don't understand... Sorry, I didn't get the last part. You've lost me. I don't follow you. What was that?
Requesting Explanations	Can you explain why...? Please explain... Do you mean to say...? I don't understand why... Why is it that...? How come...?
Requesting Elaboration	Would you expand on that? Tell me more about... Build up that idea more. I need to hear more about...
Requesting Confirmation	So what you're saying is... What you're really saying is... In other words... If I understand you correctly... So you mean that... Does this mean...?
Requesting Restating	Please say that again. Please restate that. Come again? What?
Expressing Disbelief	I'm afraid... I don't see how...

Social Skill: Obtaining Information (cont.)

Function	Gambit
Obtaining Information	But the problem is... Yes, but... But don't forget... That's good, but... I doubt... Possibly, but... What bothers me is...
Verifying Communication	Would you mind repeating that? Would you spell that, please? What did you say?
Interrupting	Excuse me. Well... Can I ask a question? I'd like to add...
Returning to the Topic	Anyway,... In any case,... As you were saying,... Where was I?
Guessing	I'd say... Could it be...? Perhaps it's...? I think it's... It looks like... It's hard to say, but I think...

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Social Skill: Giving Information

Function	Gambit
Explaining	What it is...
Restating	Another way to say that is...
	Or, in other words,...
	Using this graph,...
	From another perspective,...
Illustrating	For example...
	For instance...
	Take for example...
	For one thing...
	To give you an idea...
	Look at the way...
	Consider that...
Generalizing	As a rule,...
	Generally,...
	In general,...
	By and large,...
	In most cases,...
	Usually,...
	Most of the time,...
	Again and again,...
	Time and again,...
	Every so often,...
	From time to time,...
	Every now and then,...
Exceptions	One exception is...
	But what about...?
	Don't forget...
Presenting Opinion or Interpretation	I think that...
	I'm convinced that...
	Without a doubt,...
	I'm positive...
	I'm certain...
	In my opinion,...
	I personally feel...
	I personally believe...
	In my experience,...
	From what I've read,...
Making Suggestions	What don't you...?
	Why not...?
	Perhaps you could...
	Have you thought about...?
	Here's an idea...
	Let's...

Social Skill: Giving Information (cont.)

Function	Gambit
Adding Thoughts	To start with...
	And another thing...
	What's more,...
	Just a small point...
	Maybe I should mention...
	Oh, I almost forgot...
Giving Reasons	And besides,...
	In addition,...
	What's more,...
	Another thing is that...
	Plus the fact that...
	Because of that,...
	That's why...
	That's the reason why...
	For this reason,...
Adding Considerations	Bearing in mind...
	Considering...
	If you recall...
	When you consider that...
Thinking Ahead	If...
	When...
	Whenever...
	After...
	As soon as...
	By the time...
	Unless...
Correcting Yourself	What I mean is...
	What I meant was...
	Let me put it another way...
	What I'm saying is...
	Don't misunderstand me...
	If I said that, I didn't mean to...
Summarizing	To cut it short...
	To make a long story short...
	So,...
	To sum up,...
	In sum,...
	All in all,...
	In a nutshell,...
Checking Comprehension	Are you with me?
	Do you understand?
	Got that?
	Have you got that?
	Is that clear?
	Okay so far?
Verifying Understanding	That's right.
	Correct.
	Right.

Cooperative Learning Includes the Following Basic Elements:

Heterogeneous groups of students with assigned roles to perform

Cooperative learning consists of student-centered learning activities completed by students in heterogeneous groups of two to six. Through a shared learning activity, students benefit from observing learning strategies used by their peers. LEP students further benefit from face-to-face verbal interactions, which promote communication that is natural and meaningful. When students work in heterogeneous groups, issues related to the capabilities and status of group members sometimes arise—cooperative learning addresses these issues by assigning roles to each member of the group. Such roles as "set up," "clean up," and "reporter" help the group complete its tasks smoothly. They provide all members with a purpose that is separate from the academic activity and enable them to contribute to the successful completion of the learning task.

Lessons structured for positive interdependence among group members

After establishing student learning groups, teachers must next consider structuring the lessons to create a situation of positive interdependence among the members of the groups. Several strategies encourage students to depend on each other in a positive way for their learning: limiting available materials, which creates the need for sharing; assigning a single task for the group to complete collaboratively; and assigning each student only a certain piece of the total information necessary to complete a task, such as reading only a portion of an assigned chapter or knowing only one step in a complex math problem. Students are made responsible for each other's learning and only through sharing their pieces of information will the group be able to complete the assignment.

Identification and practice of specific social behaviors

The third basic element in cooperative learning classrooms is the social behaviors necessary for success in working cooperatively. These behaviors include sharing, encouraging others, and accepting responsibility for the learning of others. They must be overtly identified by the teacher, practiced in non-threatening situations, and reinforced throughout the school year.

Evaluation through whole-class wrap-up, individual testing, and group recognition

The fourth feature of cooperative learning is evaluation, which can be done at three levels. The success of shared learning activities is judged daily in a wrap-up or processing session. At the end of the cooperative lesson, the entire class reconvenes to report on content learning and group effectiveness in cooperation. The teacher conducts a classwide discussion in which reporters tell what happened in the group activity, successful learning strategies are shared, and students form generalizations or link learning to previously developed concepts. Even though students work collaboratively and become responsible for each other's learning, individuals are still held accountable for their own academic achievement. The scores students receive on tests form the basis of class grades, as they do in a traditional classroom.

Examples for Secondary Classes

Roundrobin

Roundrobin and Roundtable (Kagan, 1989) are simple cooperative learning techniques that can be used to encourage participation among all group members, especially LEP students. Teachers present a category to students in cooperative learning groups, and students take turns around the group naming items to fit the category. The activity is called Roundrobin when the students give answers orally. When they pass a sheet of paper and write their answers, the activity is called Roundtable.

Good topics for Roundrobin activities are those that have enough components to go at least three times around the circle with ease. Therefore, with cooperative groups of four or five students, the categories should have 12 to 15 easy answers. Topics to use for teaching and practicing Roundrobin could include the following:

- Invertebrates
- Countries where Spanish is spoken
- Works of Shakespeare

Students are usually given a time limit, such as one or two minutes, to list as many items as they can. However, each student speaks in turn so that no one student dominates the list. Roundrobin and Roundtable often help pupils concentrate on efficiency and strategies for recall. During the wrap-up, teachers can ask the most successful team to share strategies that helped them compile their list. Other learning groups will be able to try those strategies in their next round. Roundrobin or Roundtable topics are limited only by the imagination. Here are a few sample categories for various content areas. They are ordered here from simplest to most advanced.

- Geography and social studies
- Places that are cold
- Inventions
- State capitals
- Rivers of the U.S.
- Countries that grow rice
- Crops that need to be picked by hand
- Lands where Spanish is spoken
- Language arts and literature
- Compound words
- Past tense verbs
- Homonyms
- Metaphors
- Science
- Things made of glass
- Parts of the body
- Metals
- Elements weighing more than oxygen
- Essential vitamins and minerals
- NASA inventions
- Math
- Fractions
- Multiples of 12
- Degrees in an acute angle
- Prime numbers
- Important mathematicians
- Formulas for finding volume

Jigsaw Activities

Jigsaw activities (Slavin, 1981; Kagan, 1989) are designed to emphasize positive interdependence among students. A jigsaw lesson is created by dividing information to be mastered into several pieces and assigning each member of the cooperative group responsibility for one of those pieces.

For example, in a study of planets, one student would be responsible for finding out the mass and major chemical elements on each planet; another would be responsible for finding distances from the sun and between planets and their orbits; a third student would find out the origin of planet names; and the fourth would research satellites. After reading the appropriate chapter in the textbook, students become experts on that one aspect of their study unit. In class, the following day, students meet with other classmates who had the same assignment in expert groups. These groups review, clarify, and enhance their understanding of the topic before returning to their cooperative teams. Once students return, they are responsible for "teaching" the information to their teammates and adding their piece to the jigsaw puzzle.

Student team members' expertise can be developed in a number of ways. In the method described above, all students read the same material—a chapter in the text— but each focuses on a specific area. Expertise can also be formed by giving individual students a part of the total information to share with the others. This second method may involve only a short reading assignment and may be more useful for LEP students or native English speakers who are at low reading levels.

For example, if the learning task were to punctuate a group of sentences, each student on the team could be given a few of the rules for punctuation. The team would have to share their rules with each other in order to complete the task. This same kind of division could be made of steps in a sequence or clues to a mystery. By dividing the information into a jigsaw activity, the teacher ensures that students become positively interdependent on each other to complete the assignment. Each individual feels important because he or she holds a key to the solution, and the other group members actively encourage him or her to share it.

The following lesson is an example of a jigsaw activity. It consists of a logic problem with different clues given to each group member.

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Logic Problem I

Logic problems can easily be divided into jigsaw activities by separating the various pieces of information and clues. The following logic problem is first presented as a whole, then split into a jigsaw activity.

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A, and each was in a different subject: math, English, or history. The subject in which each student got the A is his or her favorite subject. From the clues below, tell which subject is each student's favorite.

- Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.
- Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.
- David got a D in history.

Student 1

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- Each student received only one A.
- Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.

Student 2

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- The subject in which each student got an A is his or her favorite subject.
- Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.

Student 3

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- Problem: Which subject is the favorite of each student?

Student 4

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- The A's were only in math, English, and history.
- David got a D in history.

Solution

- Luc got an A in math (clue 2).
- Marie got an A in history (clues 1 and 4).
- David got an A in English (process of elimination).

Overview of Selected Cooperative Learning Structures

- Structure
- Brief Description
- Functions (Academic & Social)

Team Building

Roundrobin

- Each student, in turn, shares something with his or her teammates
- Expressing ideas and opinions, creating stories
- Equal participation, getting acquainted with teammates

Class Building

Corners

Each student moves to a corner of the room representing a teacher-determined alternative. Students discuss within corners, then listen to and paraphrase ideas from other corners.

- Seeing alternative hypotheses, values, problem-solving approaches
- Knowing and respecting different points of view
- Meeting classmates

Communication Building

Paraphrase Passport

Students correctly paraphrase the person who has just spoken and then contribute their own ideas.

- Checking comprehension
- Giving feedback
- Sharing ideas

Spend-a-Buck

Each student is given four quarters to spend any way he or she wishes on the items to be decided. The team tallies the results to determine its decision.

- Decision making
- Consensus building
- Conflict resolution

Group Processing

Students evaluate their ability to work together as a group and each member's participation, with an aim to improving how the group works together.

- Communication skills
- Role-taking ability

Mastery

Numbered Heads Together

The teacher asks a question: students consult to make sure everyone knows the answer. Then one student is called upon to answer.

- Review
- Checking for knowledge
- Comprehension

Send-a-Problem

Each student writes a review problem on a flash card and asks teammates to answer or solve it. Review questions are passed to another group.

- Review
- Checking for comprehension

Cooperative Review

Students engage in a variety of games to review the week's material.

- Review
- Checking for comprehension

Concept Development

Three-Step Interview

Students interview each other in pairs, first one way, then the other. Students share with the group information they learned in the interview.

- Sharing personal information such as hypotheses, reactions to a poem, conclusions formed from a unit
- Participation
- Listening

Brainstorming

Students encourage each other to generate ideas regarding a particular topic or problem and build upon each other's ideas.

- Generating and relating ideas
- Participation
- Involvement

Group Discussion

The teacher asks a low-consensus question. Students talk it over in groups and share their ideas.

- Sharing ideas
- Reaching group consensus

Multifunctional

Roundtable

Students pass a paper and pencil around the group. Each student, in turn, writes an answer.

(In Simultaneous Roundtable, more than one pencil and paper are used at once.)

- Assessing prior knowledge
- Practicing skills
- Recalling information
- Creating cooperative art
- Teambuilding
- Participation of all

Partners

Students work in pairs to create or master content. They consult with partners from other teams. They then share their products or understanding with the other partner pair in their team.

- Mastery and presentation of new material
- Concept development
- Presentation and communication skills

Co-op

Students work in groups to produce a particular group product to share with the whole class; each student makes a particular contribution to the group.

- Learning and sharing complex material, often with multiple sources
- Evaluation, application, analysis, synthesis
- Conflict resolution
- Presentation skills
- Planning, group decision making

Group Investigation

Students identify a topic and organize into research groups to plan learning tasks or subtopics for investigation. Individual students gather and evaluate data and synthesize findings into a group report.

- Application, analysis, inference, synthesis, evaluation
- Planning, group decision making

**Adapted and expanded by L.V. Pierce from Kagan (in press) and Kagan (1990).*

Excerpted from Cooperative Learning in the Secondary School: Maximizing Language Acquisition, Academic Achievement, and Social Development *by Daniel D. Holt, Barbara Chips, and Diane Wallace, Program Information Guide 12, 1991*

B. Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach has a number of features that enhance whole language learning for LEP students. Students learn that what they say is important enough to be written down; they learn how language is encoded by watching as their oral language is put into print; and they use familiar language—their own—in follow-up activities.

Suggested steps:

1. The "experience" to be written about may be a science experiment, a group experience planned by the teacher, or simply a topic to discuss.
2. The student is asked to tell about his/her experience. Beginning students might draw a picture of the experience and then label it with help from the teacher, aide, or volunteer.
3. The student then dictates his or her story or experience to the teacher, aide, volunteer, or to another student. The writer copies down the story exactly as it is dictated. (Do not correct the student's grammar while the story is being written down.)
4. The teacher reads the story back, pointing to the words, with the student reading along.
5. The student reads the story silently and/or aloud to other students or to the teacher.
6. The experience stories are saved and can be used for instruction in all types of reading skills.
7. When students are ready, they can begin to write their own experience stories. Students can rewrite their own previous stories as their language development progresses.

Follow-up activities

Select follow-up activities based on student levels. Beginning students might unscramble sentences, choose words and make cards for a word bank, or match sentence strips to sequenced pictures from a story.

For intermediate students who are in content-area classes but have limited literacy skills, the Language Experience Approach could be a strategy that an ESL teacher or other support staff could use by having the students dictate the main points of a lesson or an experience as they remember them. The dictation would then be a study aid for the student who has trouble comprehending passages from the regular textbook. This approach would not only help students focus on comprehension and retention of important subject matter but also help improve their reading and writing abilities as well.

C. Dialogue Journals

A dialogue journal is a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly (daily, weekly, etc., depending on the educational setting) over a semester, school year, or course. Students write as much as they choose, and the teacher writes back regularly, responding to students' questions and comments, introducing new topics, or asking questions. The teacher is a participant in an ongoing written conversation with the student, rather than an evaluator who corrects or comments on the student's writing. Students can be made to feel at ease if they know that their attempts at reading and writing are seen as successes rather than failures.

Many teachers of LEP students have found dialogue journals—interactive writing on an individual basis—to be a crucial part of their classes. Dialogue journals not only open a new channel of communication but also provide another context for language and literacy development. Students have the opportunity to use English in a non-threatening atmosphere, while interacting with someone who is proficient in English. Because the interaction is written, it allows students to use reading and writing in purposeful ways and provides a natural, comfortable bridge to other kinds of writing.

Dialogue journals can also be the basis for setting up a "pen pal" exchange. You can set up cross-grade exchanges or perhaps have students begin communicating with students from another school.

Tips for using dialogue journals

- Make sure each student has a notebook to use in journal writing.
- How you begin a dialogue journal depends on the age and literacy development of your students. You can help older students get started by writing the first entry for their response. Something special about yourself usually elicits a good response.
- Be sure students know that they can write about anything in their journals, that they won't be graded, and that no one except you will read them.
- Students can write during class at a specified time, when they have free time, or outside of class.
- Be sure to respond to each journal entry. It is better that students write once or twice a week, and for you to respond each time, than to write every day and get only one response a week.
- Never correct student entries. You may ask about meaning when you don't understand something, but don't make comments such as "not clear" or "not enough detail." If a student uses an incorrect form, you may provide the correct form if your response seems natural to do so.
- Try not to dominate the "conversation." Let the student initiate topics. Too many questions in your responses will result in less language produced by the student, not more.
- The more often students write and the longer they continue writing, the greater the benefits of journal writing.

The main benefit of journal writing is that it can encourage reluctant writers to attend to meaning rather than spelling and mechanics, thus increasing their confidence and fluency. Once they feel more positive about their ability to write, you can begin to concentrate on refining their writing mechanics. The danger is that "when confronted with the numerous grammatical and mechanical errors that often characterize non-native English-speaking students' writing, many educators revert to extensive instruction in the basic low-order skills—an approach that can inhibit rather than enhance writing development" (*Interactive Writing*, 1986).

An idea for a project might be assigning pairs of students to write each other a series of letters about books they have read during vacation. Describing what they were reading and feeling and asking questions about their partner's book involves students in an authentic dialogue that motivates their efforts to communicate while allowing them to learn from one another.

For more information on the benefits of dialogue journal writing and other writing strategies that were highly successful with groups of migrant students who had parents with limited schooling, check out *Literacy Con Cariño* by Curtis W. Hayes, Robert Bahruth and Carolyn Kessler (Heinemann, 1998, www.heinemann.com).

D. Linguistically Controlled Content Area Lesson

One way to ensure that the lesson you are teaching is comprehensible to a student with limited English proficiency is to focus on communicating the key vocabulary and essential concepts. In the linguistically controlled lesson, language is taught and/or developed incidentally through the teaching of content. This is done by "controlling," to some degree, the language of instruction. The control of language is a tool in the realization of the objectives of a lesson. Most importantly, in this form of planning, the teacher does not simplify the concepts to be learned, but rather the language in which these concepts are presented. Even then, rather than to simplify the language, the aim should be to structure it and to help the students visualize and comprehend the concepts it is intended to represent.

Techniques Related to the Use of Language

- Maintain the natural rhythm and intonation patterns of English.
- Control the vocabulary and grammatical structures used. Try to be consistent in your use of language patterns.
- The language patterns you select to develop the content of the lesson should be those that lend themselves to multiple substitutions.
- Vary the form of questions you ask to allow for different levels of comprehension and participation.
- Accept small units of language as responses (words and phrases) initially and build towards the use of longer units (sentences).
- The vocabulary you select to develop should capitalize on cognates to promote comprehension. It should also include high frequency, high interest, and highly useful words. Generally, new words should be used within the context of familiar structures. Known words should be used to introduce new structures.
- Sequence language skills so as to capitalize on the fact that comprehension generally exceeds production, speech usually exceeds one's ability to read, and reading usually (but not always) takes precedence over writing. Some of these axioms may not hold true for language learners who are literate in their native language and/or who may have studied English in their native country.

Linguistically-Controlled Content Area Lesson

Outline

1. Content area of lesson:
2. Content objectives of lesson:
3. Vocabulary that is key to the comprehension of the lesson:
4. Introduction/check of background knowledge:
5. Manipulative materials used (e.g. real objects):
6. Graphic organizers used (e.g. outlines, semantic mapping):
7. Language patterns/structures emphasized:
8. Learning check/evaluation:

Notes on Content Area Reading

On Teacher Preparation

- Analyze the text, linguistically and cognitively, in order to anticipate comprehension problems.
- Select simpler reading material on the same subject.
- Identify ways of simplifying the key concepts to be taught and present them in the most concrete manner possible.
- Identify students' background knowledge and experiences that relate to the new information.
- Plan to draw on those experiences in order to facilitate comprehension.
- Select appropriate pre-reading and reading strategies for use with content area texts.

On Text Analysis

Linguistic Analysis involves identifying

- Pivotal vocabulary and technical terms needed in order to understand and discuss content
- Dominant grammatical structures found in the text
- Implied relationship between clauses within sentences, between sentences themselves, and between paragraphs
- Rhetorical structure and organization of paragraphs to be read

Conceptual Analysis involves identifying

- Key concepts to be taught, restating them, using language the students comprehend
- Prior knowledge required in order to understand new concepts
- Tools, experiences, knowledge, and skills—related to the new concepts—that students already possess

Prepared by Migdalia Romero, Hunter College, New York City

Adapting Materials

Sometimes, written materials need to be adapted before students can comprehend them. Make sure each paragraph begins with a topic sentence to help students orient to the subject matter. Use shorter paragraphs that eliminate relative clauses and the passive voice, if possible. Replace potentially ambiguous pronouns, ("it," "he/she") with the noun to which they refer ("Plymouth Rock," "President Roosevelt"). Below are some guidelines for rewriting and adapting.

- Put the topic sentence first, with supporting details in the following sentences.
- Reduce the number of words in a sentence and the number of sentences in a paragraph.
- Consider word order. Use simple positioning of clauses and phrases. Use the subject- verb-object pattern for most sentences.
- Simplify the vocabulary, but retain the key concepts and technical terms.
- Avoid excessive use of synonyms in the body of the text.
- Introduce new vocabulary with clear definitions and repeat new words as frequently as possible within the text passage. Help students connect new vocabulary with known vocabulary.
- Use the simpler verb tenses such as the present, simple past, and simple future.
- Use imperatives in materials that require following directions, such as a laboratory assignment.
- Write in active voice, not passive. For example, instead of writing "The Declaration of Independence was signed by John Hancock," write, "John Hancock signed The Declaration of Independence."
- Use pronouns judiciously, only in cases where their antecedents are obvious.

- Avoid using indefinite words like "it," "there," and "that" at the beginning of sentences. Instead of writing, "There are many children working on computers," simply write, "Many children are working on computers."
- Eliminate relative clauses with "who," "which," or "whom" wherever possible. Make the clause into a separate sentence.
- Minimize the use of negatives, especially in test questions (e.g., "Which of the following is not an example of ..."). If negation is necessary, use the negative with verbs (e.g., "don't go"), rather than negations like "no longer" or "hardly."
- Preserve the features of the text that convey meaning. For example, it is important to familiarize students with sequence markers (e.g., first, second), transition words (e.g., although, however), and prioritizing terms (e.g., most important), since they need to learn how to recognize and use them. The degree of sophistication for these features, however, should reflect students' language proficiency.

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Sample Adaptation— Upper Elementary Social Studies

The following are adapted passages from *United States History 1600–1987* (INS, 1987: 6).

Virginia

The first permanent colony was Jamestown, Virginia (1607). These colonists came from England to try to make money by trading with Europe. They believed they would find gold and silver as the Spanish had done in South America, and then they would be rich. When they got to Jamestown, most of the men tried to find gold. They did not want to do the difficult jobs of building, planting food crops, and cutting firewood. One of the colonists, John Smith, saw how dangerous this could be. He took charge and made everyone work to survive. He is remembered for his good, practical leadership. Still, less than half of the colonists survived the first few years. Only new settlers and supplies from England made it possible for the colony to survive. The discovery of tobacco as a cash crop to be traded in Europe guaranteed that the colony would do well.

Massachusetts

Many of the colonists came to America looking for religious freedom. The Catholics had troubles in England and other parts of Europe. The rulers of these countries told their citizens that they must go to a specific church and worship in a certain way. Some people's beliefs were different from their rulers, and they wanted to have their own churches. The first group to come to America for religious freedom was the Pilgrims in 1620. They sailed across the ocean on the Mayflower and landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Before landing at Plymouth, the Pilgrims agreed on the type of government they wanted. The agreement was called the Mayflower Compact. It had two important principles:

- *The people would vote on the government and laws.*
- *The people would accept whatever the majority chose.*

(The adaptation of the above passage was developed for advanced beginner/low intermediate-level LEP students.)

E. Pre-Reading Strategies

Pre-reading involves

- Encouraging students to remember previous knowledge and experiences they have had with a topic about which they are going to read
- Fostering meaningful predictions about what the author might say regarding the topic, based on previous knowledge or a quick previewing of title and sub-titles

Four pre-reading strategies include the following:

1. Anticipation Guides

Anticipation Guides consist of a list of statements that a student must decide are true or false based on prior knowledge. They are used to stimulate thought about what students already know regarding a particular concept. These guides help students clarify their thinking about a theme, concept, or topic in preparation for reading about new thoughts on a subject.

Given their controlled question format, in the form of true-false statements, anticipation guides allow students to demonstrate comprehension of ideas with a minimum of verbal production. This strategy supports research that maintains that in language acquisition, comprehension of language exceeds a person's ability to produce language.

In preparation for an anticipation guide, a teacher formulates a number of statements based on widely held beliefs about the subject or material to be read by the students. These concepts will either be confirmed or invalidated in the subsequent reading. Two columns next to each statement allow students to mark statements as either true or false in one column prior to reading and then to validate them in the second column after completing the reading.

Example from a History Lesson on the Monroe Doctrine:

True or False

1. James Monroe was President of the U.S. in 1816.
2. Florida belonged to England in 1816.
3. At the time, Spain was a very powerful government.
4. When Spain sold Florida to the U.S., Spain did not receive money.

2. Pre-reading Plans (PreP)

Pre-reading Plans allow students to free associate on topics about which they may know very little or a great deal. They are designed to help the teacher make some judgment about the students' level of prior knowledge about matters related to the passage and to introduce information necessary to their understanding.

Since students can use single word associations, the PreP is less intimidating to a limited English proficient student than strategies requiring multi-sentence responses. Additionally, the language used in exploring new concepts is derived from the students themselves and, therefore, serves as "comprehensible input" to LEP students.

In implementing a PreP, teachers ask students to tell them whatever they may know about a particular topic. These responses (initial associations with the concept, including single word utterances) are written on the board without passing judgment or making comments. Based on what is elicited, the teacher can decide to encourage further discussion and reflection on aspects of a topic that seem to be difficult or misunderstood by students and which are critical to comprehension.

Example from a History Lesson on the Monroe Doctrine:

Tell me something that comes to mind when you hear _____________.

(e.g. doctrine, Florida, hostile, independent)

Association: Why did you say that?

Reformulation: What new information did you learn?

Building Prior Knowledge:

- Do you like to choose what you want to do? (independence)
- Has anyone ever yelled at you or asked you in anger to do something? (hostile)
- Have you ever promised your mom that you would clean your room so that she would let you go out with your friends? (treaty)

KWPL Chart

This kind of chart is very useful because it helps to structure in a visual and concrete way the entire learning experience for the students. By asking students what they know about a given topic, they will tap into their background knowledge. By asking them what they want to know, it incites the students' interest and requires them to focus on the learning objectives. And by asking them what they have learned, the students will be engaged in the important task of evaluating their own learning. The step of encouraging the students to predict certain outcomes can also be added when appropriate and can help them learn how to make educated guesses.

K	W	P	L
What do I **know** about the story? (look at the title, look at the pictures, look at the headings)	What do I **want** to know about the story?	What do I **predict** will happen in the story?	What did I **learn** from the story? Did the story answer my questions? Were my predictions correct?

3. Structured Overviews (Graphic Organizers)

Structured Overviews are a framework presentation of ideas in a reading passage or chapter. They take the form of graphs, flow charts, or pictures. They emphasize important interrelationships among ideas in the reading material and promote student understanding of the text's thesis.

Structured overviews are helpful to LEP students since they isolate critical vocabulary which the student subsequently reads in context. The discussion of the overview allows students to hear the new vocabulary being used in an informal and oral format.

Preparing a structured overview involves the identification of the key concepts students need to understand the reading. The teacher then arranges them in a diagram or flow chart that illustrates the interrelationships among them.

One of the most difficult tasks in building a graphic organizer is the selection of important concepts. Teachers need to select the most representative concepts and key vocabulary. Once the critical concepts have been selected, the construction of a structured overview is relatively easy.

Steps for making an effective graphic organizer:

1. Analyze the vocabulary of the learning task and list all the words that the student needs to understand.
2. Arrange the list of words until you have a scheme that depicts the interrelationship among the concepts peculiar to the learning task.
3. Add to the scheme vocabulary terms that you believe are understood by the students in order to depict relationships between the learning task and the discipline as a whole.
4. Evaluate the organizer. Have you clearly depicted major relationships? Can the overview be simplified and still effectively communicate the crucial ideas?
5. Introduce the students to the learning task by displaying the scheme and informing them of the logic in the organization. Provide opportunities for student input.
6. During the course of the lesson, relate new information to the organizer where it seems appropriate.

	Arctic Region (1)	Northwest Region (2)	Southwest Region (3)	Great Plains Region (4)	Eastern Woodlands Region (5)
What people could use for food there					
What people could use to build houses					
What people could use for clothes					
What kinds of animals live there					

4. Story Maps

Story Maps are overviews of narrative material in outline form. They are used to build expectations for a story to be read. By isolating and organizing data critical to comprehension, LEP students are given access to English input that is simplified. One type of story map outlines the essential element of a story, including the characters, plot, and setting.

Story Map for *Amazing Grace*

Achieve

Theme:	Determination and hard work can help make a goal a reality.
Setting:	Grace's home, neighborhood, and school
Characters:	Grace, Ma, Nana
Problem:	Grace wants to be Peter Pan in a school play, but others said she couldn't because she wasn't a boy and because he (Peter) wasn't black.
Events:	Grace loves stories.
	Grace would act out stories giving herself the most exciting parts.
	Grace volunteered to be Peter in their play.
	Nana took Grace to see the Romeo and Juliet ballet.
	Grace practiced the lines and actions of Peter Pan for tryouts.
	Everyone voted for Grace.
Resolution:	Grace was an amazing Peter Pan.

F. Questioning Techniques

It is important for you to find out about the English proficiency levels of your students. Are they Novice (in the U.S. less than six months)? Beginning (in the U.S. less than two years)? or Intermediate (in the U.S. less than five years)?

Students who are at a Novice level won't be able to answer any question beyond a simple yes/no, either/or variety. By differentiating the level of difficulty of your questions, you'll be able to check the comprehension of your students while setting them up for success. The best way to illustrate this "scaffolding" of your questioning techniques is through examples. Here are some questions relating to a history unit on the Monroe Doctrine that illustrate appropriate questions for LEP students at varying proficiency levels.

Questions for Novice Learners:

- Locate Florida on the map.
- Was James Monroe elected President in 1816?
- Show me a picture of James Monroe.
- Did James Monroe fight in the battle of New Orleans?

Questions for Novice–Beginning Learners:

- Did Spain try to get support from the British or from the French?
- Was Spain's government strong or weak?

Questions for Beginning–Intermediate Learners:

- When was James Monroe elected President of the U.S.?
- What kind of general was Jackson?
- Who was the war hero in the battle of New Orleans?
- Why were two Englishmen hung?
- Why did Spain sell Florida to the U.S.?

Be aware that most of your LEP students will be reluctant to respond to questions until they feel comfortable with English. Try to structure questions so that LEP students will be held accountable and feel as though they are participating in class discussions. Having students ask each other questions in cooperative learning groups is a good strategy for encouraging LEP students to practice English.

G. Ways to Help ESL Students Survive in the Content Area Classroom

Secondary teachers can help ESL students understand subject matter by using some of the following suggestions. These activities also help ESL students develop skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Through Listening

- Record your lectures on tape as you teach. Lend the cassettes to your ESL students so that they can listen to your presentation more than once.
- Have native English speakers record the main points of a lesson which provides them with an opportunity to review and synthesize what they've learned.
- Use "advance organizers" when lecturing so that students will know the lesson's focus in advance. Recap the important ideas at the end of your talk.
- As you lecture, write down key words on the chalkboard or on the overhead projector so that your ESL students can both see and hear what you are saying.
- In an experiment with eighth-grade ESL students, Neuman and Koskinen (1992) concluded that viewing captioned television during a science program provided these students with the type of comprehensible input they needed to improve their acquisition of English reading vocabulary.

Through Speaking

- Read aloud selected passages from your content area textbook. Ask your ESL students to summarize what was read. Re-read the passage to verify accuracy and details.
- Plan some activities in which ESL students are placed in groups with English-speaking students. When the groups are small (two or three), the ESL student is more likely to be involved in the discussion. Other native-speaking students should be asked to include the ESL student in the give-and-take.
- Ask your ESL students to verbalize how the information learned in your content area will be useful in their lives or why they need to learn it.
- Set up specific purposes prior to reading a textbook selection. Discuss the purpose after the material is read.

Through Reading

- In a qualitative study with five low-literacy seventh-grade Latino students, Jimenez (1997) reported that the students benefited from cognitive strategy lessons that used culturally familiar texts, emphasized reading fluency and word recognition skills, and taught the students how to resolve unknown vocabulary, ask questions, and make inferences, as well as use bilingual strategies, such as searching for cognates, translating, and transferring knowledge from one language to another.
- Choose native-speaking students who take effective, comprehensible notes and provide them to your ESL students as study aids.
- Encourage your students to use bilingual dictionaries when necessary or to ask questions when they don't understand important concepts. Help them to guess meanings first by using context. Assure them that they don't have to understand every word to comprehend the main idea. Introduce them to a thesaurus.
- Request that appropriate content-area books be ordered for the library in the students' native languages. These can be particularly useful to your students in comprehending the concepts while the second language is being mastered. They also provide your students with a means of maintaining and developing skills in their native languages. Textbooks are often available in Spanish or in versions that have summaries of chapters in Spanish. Check with the publishers. Before you take this step, make sure that your student is literate in his native language.

- Read aloud a passage from your content area textbook. Let an ESL student orally summarize what you read. Write down what he says. Ask the student to read back what he dictated to you. This can become his own reading if it is done on a chart or in a booklet. This strategy can be especially helpful for students with limited literacy who lack confidence in their ability to read the textbook.

- Pictures, charts, and timelines make material more "user friendly." A series of pictures or a flow chart can convey a process to a student more rapidly than a paragraph or two filled with transitional adverbs and complex-compound sentences. Through comprehensible chunks of words and phrases, an outline can concisely convey essential information drawn from a passage. Timelines can subtly encourage the higher-order thinking skill of sequencing, whereas charts exercise the skill of comparing and contrasting. Formats such as these highlight specific points and diminish extraneous information.

Through Writing

- Have students keep a vocabulary book or glossary for each content area class. Words should be added to this book as they are introduced. Meanings should be written next to each word. The word in their native language could be written in parentheses next to the word. These lists should be reviewed frequently.

- Dictate sentences from your content area for students to write. Be sure to incorporate vocabulary being studied in the sentences.

- Increase possibilities for success. Alternating difficult activities with easier ones allows ESL students to experience early successes. For example, in natural science one activity could be to create a diary that Neil Armstrong might have kept on his trip to the moon; the next assignment could be to make a list of the personal items, including food, that he might have taken with him. Of course, the tasks as a whole should gradually become more academically challenging as the students become more proficient in English.

- Use the cloze procedure to check your ESL students' comprehension of the content. Provide them with a passage (outline or other graphic organizer) that they have studied and leave out every fifth word. The students should be asked to write in the words that belong in the spaces.

- Give students opportunities to label diagrams of objects for content area lessons (maps, body parts, parts of a leaf, etc.). Labeling helps students become familiar with the parts of an object as well as learning their names.

- Written exercises should be focused on the recall level of learning—for example, using who, what, when, where. Interpretive- and evaluative-level questions (why and how) can be incorporated as ESL students become more proficient in English. Sentence patterns should be consistent (subject-verb-object) while more complex variations can be developed later as students gain fluency in writing.

From a handout by Dr. Julie M.T. Chan, California State University, Long Beach

Through Note-Taking

The Cornell Note-Taking system is widely taught in the U.S. and is being used successfully to help language-minority students improve their performance in the content areas. (For example, AVID is a widely disseminated and effective program that places previously low-achieving students in college preparatory classes.) All AVID students are being taught to focus on note taking as a key to comprehending and learning the crucial vocabulary and content of a lesson.

Here are six steps that outline the Cornell note-taking system:

Record

Simply record as many facts and ideas as you can in the six-inch column. Do not be concerned with getting every word down that the lecturer says or with writing notes grammatically correctly. Learn to write telegraphic sentences or a streamlined version of the main points of the lecture, leaving out unnecessary words and using only key words. To ensure that your notes make sense weeks later, fill in blanks or make incomplete sentences complete.

Reduce or question

After reading through your notes, the next step is to reduce important facts and ideas to key words or phrases, or to formulate questions based on facts and ideas. Key words, phrases, and questions are written in the narrow column left of the six-inch column. The words and phrases act as memory cues so that when you review them, you will recall the ideas or facts. The questions help to clarify the meanings of the facts and ideas.

Recite

Recitation is a very powerful process in the retention of information. Reciting is different from re-reading in that you state, out loud and in your own words, the facts and ideas you are trying to learn. It is an effective way to learn because hearing your thoughts helps to sharpen your thinking process and stating ideas and facts in your own words challenges you to think about the meaning of the information. When reciting, cover up your notes in the six-inch column, while leaving the cue words and questions uncovered and readily accessible. Next, read each key word or question, then recite and state aloud, in your own words, the information. If your answer is correct, continue on through the lecture by reciting aloud.

Reflect

Reflection is pondering or thinking about the information learned. Reflecting is a step beyond learning note content. It reinforces deeper learning by relating facts and ideas to other learning and knowledge. Questions like the following enhance reflecting: How do these facts and ideas fit into what I already know? How can I apply them? Why is knowing this important? What is the significance of these facts and ideas?

Review

The way to prevent forgetting is to review and recite your notes frequently. A good guideline to follow is to review your notes nightly or several times during the week by reciting, not re-reading. Brief review sessions planned throughout the semester, perhaps weekly, will aid more complete comprehension and retention of information than will cramming the day before a test. It will cut down on stress, too!

Recapitulate

The recapitulation or summary of your notes goes at the bottom of the note page in the two-inch block column. Taking a few minutes after you have reduced, recited, and reflected to summarize the facts and ideas in your notes will help you integrate your information. The summary should not be a word-for-word rewriting of your notes. It should be in your own words and reflect the main points you want to remember from your notes. Reading through your summary(ies) in preparation for an exam is a good way to review.

The following are three ways to summarize:

1. Summarize notes at the bottom of each page.
2. Summarize the whole lecture on the last page.
3. Do both one and two, in combination.

Cornell Notetaking System Sample

During Lecture

1. Record

- Write down facts and ideas in phrases.
- Use abbreviations when possible.

After Lecture

1. Recapitulation

- Read through your notes.
- Summarize each main idea.
- Fill in blanks, and make scribbles more legible.
- Use complete sentences.

2. Reduce or Question

- Write key words, phrases, or questions to serve as cues for notes taken in class.
- Cue phrases and questions should be in your own words.

3. Recite

- With classroom notes covered, read each key word or question.
- Recite the fact or idea brought to mind by key word or question.

4. & 5. Reflect and Review

- Review your notes periodically by reciting.
- Think about what you have learned.

H. Learning Strategies Across the Curriculum

Learning strategies are special techniques that students use or can be taught to use to help them understand and remember new information. Learning strategies can be metacognitive, cognitive, or social-affective. Explicitly working with LEP students to master many of these learning strategies will help them to grasp the material more efficiently. All of the students in your class will benefit from instruction in strategies such as how to check their own comprehension and how to classify words according to their attributes. In this way, you will be providing every student with the tools to become a more independent learner.

Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned. Examples of metacognitive strategies include the following:

1. Advance Organization	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle.
2. Selective Attention	Attending to or scanning key words, phrases, linguistic markers, sentences, or types of information.
3. Organizational Planning	Planning the parts, sequence, and main ideas to be expressed orally or in writing.
4. Self-Monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
5. Self-Evaluation	Judging how well one has accomplished a learning task.

Cognitive Strategies involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task. Examples of cognitive strategies are:

6. Resourcing	Using reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
7. Grouping	Classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their attributes.
8. Note-taking	Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated form during a listening or reading activity.
9. Summarizing	Making a mental or written summary of information gained through listening or reading.
10. Deduction	Applying rules to understand or produce language or solve problems.
11. Imagery	Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand new information or make a mental representation of a problem.
12. Auditory Representation	Playing back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or fact in order to assist comprehension and recall.
13. Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations to the new information.
14. Transfer	Using what is already known about language to assist comprehension or production.
15. Inferencing	Using information in the text to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.

Social and Affective Strategies involve interacting with another person to assist learning, or using affective control to assist learning, or using affective control to assist a learning task. The following are examples of social and affective strategies:

16. Questioning for Clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
17. Cooperation	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
18. Self-talk	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.

CALLA: A Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, Anna Uhl Chamot & J. Michael O'Malley, (c)1986

Why Do I Need to Modify My Instruction and Assessment? I'm a Content Area Teacher!

Many students will learn better if you employ a variety of methods.

No two students learn in exactly the same ways, and your ELLs as well as your students with varying learning styles will benefit from your efforts to ensure that the essential elements of your lesson are understood.

The following pages include a series of modifications checklists which have been developed as suggested instructional and assessment approaches for use with beginning LEP students. Students will surely benefit from efforts to focus on the key concepts of a lesson by using more visual aids, planning cooperative learning activities, building on prior knowledge, utilizing graphic organizers, and other recommended strategies.

You may also want to do a self-evaluation using the checklists in order to determine your own level of application of the recommended strategies on a day-to-day basis. (A rubric for frequency of use might be: 1—Never, 2—Occasionally, 3—two to three times a week, 4—Frequently, 5—Daily.) Documenting your own use of the modifications can provide you with an overview of your teaching style and help you to identify areas needing improvement.

Level 2 Beginning Students

(Up to two years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

Instructional Modifications

All Students

____ Use visuals/"hands-on" manipulatives
____ Use gestures to convey meaning non-verbally
____ Provide concrete "real" examples and experiences
____ Build on the known (e.g., make connections with students' culture, experiences, interests, and skills)
____ Simplify vocabulary/change slang and idioms to simpler language
____ Highlight/review/repeat key points and vocabulary frequently
____ Establish consistent classroom routines/ list steps for completing assignments
____ Use yes/no, either/or, and why/how questions (Allow wait time for response)
____ Check for comprehension on a regular basis ("Do you understand?" is not detailed enough)
____ Create story and semantic maps
____ Use "Language Experience Approach"
____ Plan ways for ESL students to participate in class and in cooperative learning groups
____ Make outlines/use graphic organizers
____ Use audio tapes to reinforce learning
____ Use simplified books/texts that cover content-area concepts
____ Translate key concepts into a student's native language

Students with adequate literacy in their native language (if bilingual person is available)

____ Use textbooks/books in the native language that cover key concepts being taught
____ Encourage student to use a bilingual dictionary as a learning tool
____ Have student write essays/journal entries in the native language

Level 2 Beginning Students

(Up to two years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

Assessment Modifications

All Students

____ Have student point to the picture of a correct answer (limit choices)
____ Have student circle a correct answer (limit choices)
____ Instruct student to draw a picture illustrating a concept
____ Reduce choices on multiple-choice tests
____ Instruct student to match items
____ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises with the word list provided
____ Give open-book tests
____ Ask student to retell/restate (orally and in writing)
____ Instruct student to define/explain/summarize orally in English or the native language
____ Have student compare and contrast (orally and in writing)
____ Use cloze procedure with outlines, charts, timelines, etc.

Students with adequate literacy in their native language (if bilingual person is available)

____ Instruct student to write what he or she has learned in the native language

Level 3 Intermediate Students

(Up to five years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

Assessment Modifications

All Students

____ Instruct student to explain how an answer was achieved (orally and in writing)
____ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises
____ Ask student to retell/restate (orally and in writing)
____ Instruct student to define/explain/summarize (orally and in writing)
____ Have student compare and contrast (orally and in writing)
____ Use cloze procedure with outlines, charts, time lines, etc.
____ Have student analyze and explain data (orally and in writing)
____ Instruct student to express opinions and judgments (orally and in writing)
____ Have student write essays

Sample Lesson Plan: Putting it all Together

The following is a vignette about a student named Tommy and his seventh-grade teacher that illustrates the application of many of the concepts and strategies presented in Chapter 3.

Understand Students' Language Needs

Tommy is a seventh grader, recently enrolled in his neighborhood middle school. He has been out of school since completing fifth grade in his native country and has been in the U.S. for nine months. He and his family do not speak English at home, although Tommy hears it in his neighborhood and when watching sports or movies on TV. His parents and older siblings work long hours in service-oriented jobs. He has basic conversational abilities in English. For example, in school he can ask for a book or pencil; he can ask the attendance office for a note to get into class if he arrives late; he can, in a general way, converse with peers about what he did over the weekend. He can understand many classroom routines, procedures, and directions, particularly when they are written on the board or an overhead transparency. In nine months, he has developed rudimentary reading skills in English. Tommy's teacher realizes that despite his growing English competence, Tommy would have a very difficult time in a mainstream content classroom taught in English that did not provide accommodation for his limited academic English proficiency. Lectures, classroom discussions, independent reading of the textbook, and written assignments are very hard for him to accomplish without considerable instructional support. In addition, Tommy needs academic lessons that explicitly help enhance his English language skills (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, in press).

Plan lessons

Tommy is capable of completing many required academic tasks if his teachers consider his language needs. For example, in the lesson we will describe, students are asked to read about the armor knights wore in medieval times. When planning the lesson, Tommy's teacher sets a content objective and a language development objective for Tommy and the other students in his class with similar language abilities. By thinking through and writing down both content and language objectives, the teacher is more likely to embed language development activities into an otherwise strictly content-driven lesson. In this lesson, the content objective is to name, describe, and tell the function of a knight's armor and weaponry. Students will also be able to define key terms (parades, tournaments, quests) and describe how armor and weaponry differed for these purposes and occasions. The language objective is for students to locate information in a written text and use this information to complete sentences using standard English grammar and spelling.

To facilitate note taking and the final writing task, the teacher distributes a tree diagram graphic organizer with the trunk labeled "Armor." Each branch is numbered and labeled with a category ("Uses," "Events," "Characteristics"). Smaller branches attached to the main ones are used to write notes about each category. Using the information from the graphic organizer, students complete a worksheet, writing complete sentences.

Tommy's teacher makes the reading more accessible to students with limited English skills. She photocopies the material and identifies paragraphs containing the required information by numbering them to correspond with the numbers she put on the graphic organizer and worksheet. She modifies the worksheet so that instead of answering questions, as the fluent English speakers are expected to do (e.g., "Describe two situations in which the medieval knight wore his armor, and tell how the armor he wore was specifically suited to that situation"), the English language learners (ELLs) are given sentence prompts to complete (e.g., "Medieval knights wore different armor for different situations. For parades, knights wore ________. This was good because ________. For tournaments, knights wore ________. This was good because ________.). The concept is the same for all students, but language complexity is reduced for English learners.

Deliver instruction

Presentation:

The teacher begins the lesson by reviewing previous lessons about the middle ages and refers to a posted list of key terms that students have generated. Using an overhead transparency, she draws students' attention to the objectives, telling the students that in today's lesson they will learn about armor worn by knights in the middle ages, and they will answer questions in complete sentences about the different kinds of armor they wore. The teacher then opens a discussion about different types of clothing and their uses. She shows pictures from department store circulars depicting formal, casual, and work clothes. The teacher ties the topic to students' personal experiences by prompting them to discuss the function of different types of clothes, including what they wear to school (e.g., clothes worn in gym class, to dances, and in the classroom).

After students have expressed an understanding of clothing's various functions, she distributes the reading passage and reads the section aloud, paraphrasing as needed and drawing attention to information that may be used to complete the tree diagram. She checks for student comprehension by asking different kinds of questions, especially those that can generate elaborated answers. Students are given ten minutes to complete the tree diagram, using information from the reading. When they finish, student pairs share their notes, and several students report to the class on their notes.

Using another transparency, the teacher reviews the instructions, outlining the activity: 1) join your partner, 2) look in the reading for the number that matches the question, 3) read that paragraph, 4) find the answer to the question, 5) write the response, and 6) do the same for all the questions on the worksheet.

Modeling and guided practice:

Before starting the pair work, the teacher calls on two students to model the assignment. She guides them through steps 1-5 as the other students watch. Then all the students pair up and follow the same procedures. The teacher circulates to ensure each pair understands the instructions and is working successfully.

Independent practice and application: Students complete the worksheet in pairs, and the teacher provides assistance as needed. The students will have 15 minutes to complete their worksheet in pairs, after which they will be given another worksheet to complete independently. Their grade will be based upon the second worksheet.

Assess results

Throughout the lesson, the teacher informally checks the students' comprehension and performance of the task. After students have had an opportunity to finish the pair work, the teacher has them sit at their individual desks and put away the first worksheet. She distributes the second worksheet that students are to complete independently. This worksheet, which is a variation of the first, serves two purposes: as an individual check for student understanding before moving on with the unit and as data for grading. The ELLs complete a sheet showing pictures of specific pieces of armor. They are to identify the piece and tell its function, using key words such as parades, tournaments, and quests. They are to write in complete sentences.

Conclusion

The teacher in this scenario used a number of instructional practices that are effective for English language learners.

- Planning and incorporating language development objectives into a content lesson
- Structuring lessons so that expectations for students are explicit
- Providing opportunities for students to use academic language in meaningful ways
- Using visuals (e.g., overhead transparencies, graphic organizer, pictures) to increase comprehension
- Posting key terms for students' reference
- Providing opportunities for students to work together in completing academic tasks
- Promoting interactive discussions among students and teacher
- Maintaining cognitive challenge
- Connecting the lesson to students' own experiences

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If you want to know more about these strategies, consult the following sources:

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Escamilla, K. (1992). *Integrating Mexican-American History and Culture into the Social Studies Classroom*, ERIC Digest EDO-RC-92-5, Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

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Hamayan, E., & Perlman, R. (1990). *Helping Language-minority Students After They Exit from Bilingual/ESL Programs*, Program Information Guide #1, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, www.ncbe.gwu.edu

Ploumis-Devick, E., & Follman, J. (1995). *Appreciating Differences: Teaching and Learning in a Culturally Diverse Classroom*, SERVE, OERI report.

Resources for Cooperative Learning

Cochran, C. (Summer 1989). *Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the All-English-Medium Classroom: A Cooperative Learning Approach, Program Information Guide—No. 12*, National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.

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Holt, D., Chips, B., & Wallace, D. (1991). *Cooperative Learning in the Secondary School: Maximizing Language Acquisition, Academic Achievement, and Social Development*, Program Information Guide Series, Number 12, NCBE.

Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R. T., Holubec, E.J., & Roy, P. (1984). *Circles of Learning: Cooperation in the Classroom*, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

Kagan, S. (1989). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers*, 27402 Camino Capistrano, Suite 201, Laguna Niquel, CA 92577, 714-582-3137.

Resources for the Language Experience Approach

Rigg, P. (1989). *Language Experience Approach: Reading Naturally.* In Rigg, P. & Allen, V. *When They Don't All Speak English.* (p. 65-76) National Council of Teachers of English, 217-328-3870.

Resources on Dialogue Journals

Atwell, N. (1987). *In the Middle: Writing, Reading, and Learning with Adolescents*, Heinemann, Boynton/ Cook, 1-800-541-2086.

Peyton, J. (1993). *Dialogue Journals: Interactive Writing to Develop Language and Literacy*, ERIC/ Center for Applied Linguistics, 202-362-0700. www.cal.org

Hayes, C., Bahruth, R., & Kessler, C. (1998). *Literacy Con Cariño*, Heinemann, 800-793-2154. www.heinemann.com

Chapter 4 At-a-Glance

Chapter 4 is the first of four subject-specific chapters that will address ways in which you can help your ELLs meet the standards that are an increasing factor in measuring the success of teaching and learning. Middle and high school teachers, as you know, are primarily focused on their subject areas, and these chapters are designed to supplement the more general information presented in Chapter 3. Also, for a much more detailed discussion of assessment strategies and resources, please refer to Chapter 8, "Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?"

Some highlights of Chapter 4 include:

- Making literature more comprehensible
- Encouraging students to maintain their native language
- Using story maps
- Teaching ELLs how to write
- Selecting multicultural texts

The bulk of this chapter is adapted from "Preparing Secondary Education Teachers to Work with English Language Learners: English Language Arts," by Kris Anstrom, with contributions from Linda Mauro and Patricia DiCerbo (1998). The project was funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs. The paper in its entirety is available at the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education at the George Washington University website at www.ncbe.gwu.ed.

"Adolescent literature needs to be a mirror of who they are and what they are struggling with as well as a window for understanding the world."

—Dr. Linda Mauro

CHAPTER 4:

Making English Language Arts Comprehensible to the English Language Learner

Respect Student Diversity

The recently released Standards for the English Language Arts is among the few national content standards documents that explicitly focus on the needs of ELLs. Two of the 12 standards are directly related, one focusing on the importance of native language development and the other promoting an understanding of, and respect for, diversity in language use. The authors state that the capacity to hear and respect different perspectives and to communicate with people whose lives and cultures are different from our own is a vital element of American society. Simply celebrating our shared beliefs and traditions is not enough; we also need to honor that which is distinctive in the many groups making up our nation (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1996).

Dr. Linda Mauro, English education professor at the George Washington University, reinforces these statements in her discussion of the role minority literature can play in the lives of both native and non-native speakers. She remarks:

> *I believe that adolescent literature needs to be a mirror of who they are and what they're struggling with as well as a window for understanding the world. So, I think for a second language learner...if we deny them the opportunity to ever read literature that is for them a mirror, we're doing them a disservice. And if we deny native speakers and native born students a chance to use literature as a window to understand other cultures and other students, we're denying them a chance to look beyond what they already know.*

Select Appropriate Texts

The idea of giving students a chance to celebrate their diversity is related to one of the key issues in English language arts curriculum development—selection of appropriate texts. Research into reading indicates that students use past experiences and background knowledge to make sense out of unfamiliar texts. For this reason, ELLs may have difficulty with texts that are culturally unknown to them, contain difficult vocabulary and complex themes, or use academic or archaic syntax. Literature that is relevant to the life experiences and cultures of ELL students, including folk tales or myths from their first culture, can facilitate cognitive and language development. Short stories written by minority authors, such as William Saroyan, Sandra Cisneros, and Amy Tan, are also beneficial because they tend to contain themes and characters with which students from the respective cultures of these authors are familiar. Moreover, these works allow students from the majority culture the opportunity to learn from perspectives that may differ from their own (Sasser, 1992).

Some examples of books that depict the migrant experience include the following:

Barefoot Heart, Stories of a Migrant Child by Elva Treviño Hart (Bilingual Press, 1999)

The Circuit by Francisco Jimenez (University of New Mexico Press, 1997)

Voices from the Fields: Children of Migrant Farmworkers Tell Their Stories, S. Beth Atkin (Little, Brown and Co., 1993)

Y No Se Lo Tragó La Tierra/And the Earth Did Not Devour Him by Tomas Rivera, (Arte Público, bilingual edition, 1995)

Bless Me, Ultima by Rudolfo Anaya (Warner Books, 1995)

Make Literature More Comprehensible

A second emphasis of the language arts standards is to give students the tools to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate a wide range of texts (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1996). To help ELLs meet this goal, teachers are encouraged to adopt instructional approaches which help make literary material more comprehensible to these students and actively teach strategies that will support them in their endeavors to unlock meaning in works of literature.

Sasser (1992) suggests a number of tools teachers can use to make literature more understandable. For example, graphic organizers (clusters, semantic maps, storyboards, matrices, semantic webs, and Venn diagrams) can help students visualize and organize thematic content and characters and keep abreast of plot developments. Through the process of listing, sorting, and evaluating information, students become involved in responding critically to the work they are reading. In addition, graphic organizers force students to reformulate abstract information from the text into a concrete form. Such activities aid students in comprehending and expressing difficult ideas. Sasser also recommends that students keep journal entries about the literature they read and interact with their peers orally and in writing. Together, these activities give ELLs the extra support needed for successful academic experiences with literature.

Into, Through, and Beyond

Language approaches, which view meaning and natural language as the foundations for literacy development, are particularly well-suited to language arts classrooms where students are actively involved in constructing meaning from their own experiences and through encounters with various texts. It may be helpful to present a literature unit using the three stages: INTO, THROUGH, and BEYOND.

Into

Sasser (1992) describes the INTO stage as what occurs before the reading begins. The purpose here, particularly for ELLs, is to interest the students in the text and elicit prior knowledge that may be useful in interpreting the work. Anticipation guides (see p.65), often composed of simple true-false or agree-disagree statements, encourage students to identify and think through their positions on ideas prevalent in the literary work. The teacher can also introduce the reading through simulation activities or by eliciting predictions from the students about the content and outcome of their work.

Through

During the THROUGH phase, students either read the text silently or listen to the teacher reading selected portions of the work aloud. Tape recordings of the text being read can also be a helpful tool, which the students can listen to when they're working independently either at school or at home. By hearing the text, ELLs get a better sense of inflection, pronunciation, rhythm, and stress, which can aid understanding. ELLs can also develop the skills necessary for comprehension of a complex work of literature—following a sequence of events, identifying foreshadowing and flashback, visualizing setting, analyzing character and motive, comprehending mood and theme, and recognizing irony and symbols—by taking part in oral and written discussion and activities. As classmates share their different interpretations of a text, those who come from educational systems that stress only one right answer begin to realize the possibility for multiple viewpoints. In addition, the use of graphic organizers becomes important as students grapple with the complexities of theme, character, and plot.

Beyond

The BEYOND stage involves students in activities that refine their thoughts and deepen their comprehension of a text. Comparing a book with its film version (for example, *The Grapes of Wrath* by John Steinbeck), conducting research on issues raised from reading or discussion, or responding through poetry or song are examples of how teachers can further student involvement with a literary work.

Encourage Students to Maintain the Native Language

A key focus of the English language arts standards is on maintaining the native language of ELL students. Authors of the standards documents assert that students should make use of their first language not just in language arts classes, but in all content areas. Providing opportunities for native language use has been found to have a positive effect on the academic success of ELL students in predominantly English-medium settings (Tikunoff et al., 1991).

ELL students who are literate in their native language and have been in U.S. schools for less than a year or two will greatly benefit from being provided with novels and textbooks written in their dominant language. Selecting texts which relate to the content being taught will help them to keep up with the course material. This will keep them involved in reading that is cognitively demanding while they are learning English. Students will also be able to demonstrate their true level of comprehension if they can explain what they have learned using their first language.

For monolingual English teachers or those teachers who do not speak all the languages of their students, Tikunoff et al. (1991) outline several ways to facilitate native language use. These include utilizing the services of aides or tutors fluent in the native languages of the students to assist in explaining content materials and allowing students to respond in their native language to questions asked in English. This can be an effective way to check their comprehension of the essential points of a lesson. In addition, native language books, magazines, films, or other materials relating to the topic or theme of a lesson support native language development when other resources are not available. Lucas and Katz (1994) suggest that students who are not proficient in English can keep reading logs or journals in their native languages. Teachers can also utilize their students' linguistic resources by pairing students with the same native language, but different levels of proficiency, so that more proficient students can tutor those less proficient.

Native Language Peer Tutoring

The teacher sets out the steps for the day's lesson on the process of writing a family history. The class, a heterogeneous grouping of middle school students whose native languages are Spanish, Vietnamese, and Korean, watch quietly and attentively as Mr. Parks (the teacher) brainstorms the topic, scribbling notes about his family history on the overhead projector as a model of how this prewriting technique can help them begin exploration of this topic. Next, Mr. Parks turns to the chalkboard, writing his first draft as he explains the students' task. When he is done, the students turn to each other at their tables to exchange ideas for their own family histories. After about five minutes, Ana leans over Rosa's paper, which is already three-quarters filled with writing in Spanish and English. Rosa has only been in the school for one month, and Norma describes her level of English as beginning. Ana, on the other hand, has high-intermediate English skills. Mr. Parks has carefully constructed students' groups to make sure each contains students with different skill levels so that they can help each other in either English or their native languages. Her brow furrowed, Rosa consults with Ana, discussing what is on the sheet and what still needs to be added. She speaks quickly and quietly in Spanish, an occasional word from the sheet in English breaking the flow (Lucas & Katz, 1994).

Story Maps

One way to help LEP students comprehend the main characters and elements of a story is by using a graphic organizer that limits the amount of vocabulary that the students will have to know to read the most essential words and characters. The common structure or basic plan of narrative text is known as the "story grammar." Although there are numerous variations of the story grammar, the typical elements are:

- Setting—when and where the story occurs
- Characters—the most important people or players in the story
- Initiating Event—an action or occurrence that establishes a problem and/or goal
- Conflict/goal—the focal point around which the whole story is organized
- Events—one or more attempts by the main character(s) to achieve the goal or solve the problem
- Theme—the main idea or moral of the story

The graphic representation of these story elements is called a *story map*. The exact form and complexity of a map depends, of course, upon the unique structure of each narrative and the personal preference of the teacher constructing the map.

One major purpose for story mapping is to assist teachers in planning and conducting reading instruction. Therefore, in preparing to have students read a narrative selection, it is recommended that teachers analyze the structure of the story and create a map. The process of creating such a map helps teachers determine what is important enough about a story to be emphasized in class. For example, the theme often indicates background knowledge that students will need to use for comprehension, and this can become the focus of a pre-reading discussion. Here are some other ways to use story maps:

- **Use story maps to teach students the elements of the story.**

  Teaching students the structural elements enables them to anticipate the type of information they should be looking for as they read and strengthens their recall of story events. On a regular basis, after a story has been completed, use the teacher-created map to define and illustrate the story grammar elements.

- **Use teacher-made story maps to teach students to create their own story maps.**

  After students have had several opportunities to see how the major elements of the story can be represented in a map, provide experiences for the students to become active participants in creating and using them. In this way, students will become directly aware of how knowledge of text structure will help them understand what they read.

- **Use story maps to create questions that guide the discussion of a story.**

The discussion of a narrative selection will enhance students' understanding if the order of the questions posed by the teacher follows the organization of the story map. Also, consistently discussing stories in their logical sequence will strengthen the students' sense of the important story elements and thus increase their ability to comprehend stories they will read in the future. The following are sample questions that can be asked about each of the story elements:

1. **Setting**
   - Where does the story take place?
   - When does the story take place?
   - Could the setting have been different?
   - Why do you think the author chose this setting?
2. **Characters**
   - Who were the characters in the story?
   - Who was the most important character in the story?
   - Which character did you enjoy the most? Why?
   - What is (a particular character) like?
3. **Initiating event**
   - What started the chain of events in this story?
   - What is the connection between this event and the problem?
4. **Problem/goal**
   - What is the main problem/goal?
   - Why is this a problem/goal for the main character?
   - What does this problem/goal tell us about this character?
   - How is the setting related to the problem/goal?
   - What is there about the other characters that contributes to this problem/goal?
5. **Events**
   - What important events happened in this story?
   - What did ________ do about ________ ?
   - What was the result of this?
   - Why didn't it succeed?
   - What did ________ do next?
   - How did ________ react to this?
   - What do you learn about ________ from the course of action taken?
6. **Resolution**
   - How is the problem solved/goal achieved?
   - How else could the problem have been solved/goal achieved?
   - How would you change the story if you were the author?
7. **Theme**
   - What is the theme of the story?
   - What do you think the author was trying to tell readers in this story?
   - What did ________ learn at the end of this story?
   - Having students "retell" a story (either orally or in writing) in their own words is an excellent way of gauging their comprehension.

FICTION: Retelling Guide

Student ______________________ **Date** ______________ **Grade** ________

Characters ____

Setting ____

Problems ____

Events ____

Solution/Resolution ______________________________________

"Chunking the Text"

In preparation for a unit, the teacher "chunks" the book into sections. The chunks set a pace at which students study the story. At least one lesson is devoted to each chunk. The goal of "chunking" is to create manageable portions of reading at meaningful junctures to engage the students in discussion and writing. Some chunks are short because the content is complex and critical to the larger understanding of the story and theme(s). Other chunks are longer because the content is more straightforward.

Providing students with an outline of the various "chunks" will help them to navigate the story.

Example: Chunking for "Annie and the Old One" Literature Unit

	CHUNK 1	**CHUNK 2**
	Pages 1-7	Pages 8-13
Synopses of Chunks	Describes Annie's environment, activities, and relationship with the Old One (grandmother), who tells Annie it's time for her to learn to weave.	Annie seems lost in thought as she watches her mother weaving a new rug; Annie tells her mother she is not ready to start weaving.
Understandings to Develop	The closeness between Annie and the Old One; fragility of the Old One—suggesting she may not have long to live.	The role of weaving—passed on from one generation to the next; and Annie's uncertainty about learning to weave.
Discussion Topics	What have you learned about Annie and the Old One? (Who is Annie? What is expected of her? What kind of relationship does she have with the Old One?)	Why do the Old One and Annie's mother think it is time for Annie to learn to weave? Why does Annie feel she is not ready to weave?
Literature Logs	Write about someone you are very close to and describe your relationship, or write about a time you thought someone you loved might die.	Describe an important responsibility you have at home that makes you feel grown up. Why does it make you feel more grown up?

Excerpted from Successful Transition into Mainstream English: Effective Strategies for Studying Literature *by William Saunders, Gisela O'Brien, Deborah Lennon, and Jerry McLean, CREDE, 1999*

The Writing Process

Writing is a challenge for most LEP students, but there are recommended strategies for helping them to become effective, proficient writers. Among the strategies previously mentioned in Chapter 3 are the Language Experience Approach (Chapter 3, page 60) and Dialogue Journals (Chapter 3, page 61). The following section will provide an overview of strategies for use during each stage of the writing process.

Six Steps to Fluent Writing

Six steps in the writing process are described here: prewriting, drafting, sharing or conferring, revising, editing, and publishing. Not all steps are used with all types of writing; neither are all used with every piece a student writes. Certain stages may be changed or omitted depending on the student's age and proficiency at writing. For example, inexperienced writers are not expected to use revision extensively and often publish "first drafts." Experienced writers, on the other hand, often do not need elaborately structured prewriting experiences but can prepare to write privately.

Step 1. Prewriting

Prewriting experiences help students to develop the need and desire to write and to acquire information or content for writing, as well as necessary vocabulary, syntax, and language structures. To help students get ready to write, provide:

a. Talking and listening time, including language experience activities

b. Shared experiences, such as trips, plays, interviews, or films

c. Wide exposure to literature appropriate to the students' age and language proficiency

d. Drama activities, including role-playing and storytelling

e. Opportunities to study, discuss, and map story patterns and structures

f. Semantic mapping to elicit vocabulary and organize ideas

g. Opportunities for students to prepare for writing by exploring what they know—their own personal experiences or subjects they have studied in depth

h. "Freewriting"—having students write anything that comes to them, without stopping, for a short period of time

Step 2. Drafting

When drafting, students write quickly to get ideas down, working for fluency without worrying much about mechanics. They are encouraged to think of writing as mutable, not as "done" once it is put to paper. Students are encouraged to spell based on the sound of letters and words they know.

Remember to

a. Write along with the students. Model being a writer, and produce your own pieces to share with students.

b. Encourage students to spell as best they can. Students may be a little frustrated with this at first, but if you persist in not providing too much help, they will become more confident writers. They may use dictionaries, thesauruses, and the spell-check feature on the computer to edit and revise at later stages in the writing.

c. Provide writing experiences daily. Journals or learning logs may be helpful.

d. Encourage students to refer to maps, webs, jot lists, or outlines they have made during prewriting.

Step 3. Sharing and Responding to Writing

In this step, students share their writing in small groups, large groups, or individually with the teacher. Teacher and students give one another encouragement and feedback or input in preparation for revision. Suggested activities follow.

a. To model and teach the conferencing process, share and discuss an anonymous piece of writing (written by you or by a student from another class or year). An overhead projector is very helpful in this activity. Model giving encouraging and specific responses in writing.

b. Use peer conference groups, and train students to use "PQP" in their responses to others' writing—Positive feedback, Questions to clarify meaning, and suggestions to Polish writing.

c. Have students read their writing aloud in regular, individual, or small group conferences. Reading aloud helps students evaluate their own writing in a situation where they can get suggestions from others. Begin peer conferences by demonstrating appropriate skills as in (a) above. Motivate students through your regard and respect for their writing. Begin with paired groups and short, structured times (e.g., five minutes), during which each partner finds something he/she likes about the other's writing.

d. Respond to students' writing in interactive journals (see Dialogue Journals, p. 61).

Step 4. Revising Writing

In this step, students revise selected pieces of writing for content quality and clarity of expression. Not all pieces are revised, only those in which the student has a particular interest and for which the student has a particular audience in mind. Revision activities include the following:

a. Demonstrating revision techniques such as using editorial symbols on the overhead or physically cutting and pasting a chart-sized paper or transparency to rearrange text.

b. Using a word processor to make revisions.

c. "Mini-lessons"—demonstrations/discussions of qualities of good writing, such as clarity, voice, sense of audience, appropriate sequencing, word choice, lead, ending, and transitions in preparation for revision. Focus on one skill per writing project; as students accumulate skills, they can revise for these aspects in their writing.

d. Students applying revision guidelines and suggestions to their own work. When appropriate, encourage students to share (Step 3) and revise (Step 4) several times until they are satisfied with the content of their work.

Step 5. Editing

In this step, students, with the help of peers and teachers, fix up mechanics of usage and spelling. Editing standards are different for students of different ages and at different stages in their writing. This step is only carried out when there is a purpose and an authentic audience for the writing, such as when a piece is going to be published. Editing activities may include the following:

a. Creating a student editing checklist (for classroom walls or folders) that lists editing skills familiar to students.

b. Creating an editing center with resources, such as an editing chart, a dictionary, a thesaurus, a grammar reference, computers with spell check. Alternatively, students could keep a chart of editing skills they have acquired.

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c. Conducting editing mini-lessons and conferences with individuals, small groups, and full groups. You might require an editing conference before a student's final draft.

d. Helping students make personal spelling, translation, or picture dictionaries for their use in checking spelling or usage.

e. Peer edit exchanges or conferences.

Step 6. Publishing

Through publication, the writing is presented to the public and celebrated. Although new language learners' writing is often published in draft form, writing of more proficient writers will be revised and edited before publication. Middle and high school students probably need some protection from adverse audience response—perhaps an editing conference with you before work is prepared for presentation to outsiders. Publishing gives students an authentic reason to write. Publish students' writing often. See the boxed list of suggested ways to publish student writing.

Ways to Publish Student Writing

- Write stories or folk tales to share with younger students.
- Bind contributions from each student into a class book, such as a poetry anthology, short story collection, or nonfiction collection.
- Make a class newspaper or literary magazine.
- Mail letters.
- Print a useful book to sell or give away in the community, such as an ethnic restaurant guide, a multicultural cookbook, or a local history.
- Ask each student to choose a favorite piece of writing to polish and add to his or her writing portfolio.

Sample Diamante poem:

Seasons
Winter
Rainy, cold
Skiing, skating, sledding
Mountains, wind, breeze, ocean
Swimming, surfing, scuba diving
Sunny, hot
Summer

Warm-up Activities

Begin by linking "cinquaines" to things such as a nature walk just off campus, closure for a certain class activity/unit, end-of-term remembrance, etc.

Instructions

1. Students work in small groups of three to five. Each group has one example poem, and the tasks are
   a) Identify the structure/form of the poem (what are the parts of speech in each line).
   b) Report orally and informally to the rest of the class on the feeling/tone of the poem.
   c) Answer the question: What is the relationship between the first and last lines? Students can use dictionaries as necessary to figure out unfamiliar words.
2. Students report on their assigned poems. The structured form is then written on the board or screen and/or presented on a handout. For example,

   Line 1: Winter = NOUN-A

   Line 2: Rainy, cold = ADJECTIVES-A

   Line 3: Skiing, skating, sledding = 3 GERUNDS-A (verb + -ing)

   Line 4: Mountains, wind, breeze, ocean = 2 NOUNS-A + 2 NOUNS-B

   Line 5: Swimming, surfing, scuba diving = 3 GERUNDS-B

   Line 6: Sunny, hot = 2 ADJECTIVES-B

   Line 7: Summer = 1 NOUN-B
3. Students' observations regarding antonyms, parts of speech on each line, emotional tone, etc. are also discussed/outlined clearly.
4. Individual groups then "brainstorm" as many possible pairs of antonyms as they can create. The teacher puts the pairs on the board/overhead screen as suggestions (e.g. school days-holidays, student-teacher, love-hatred, peace-war...). Students can use a dictionary or thesaurus.
5. Students and instructor choose one of the brainstormed topics and write a cinquaine poem together on the board/screen.
6. Working individually with a template, students write one or more cinquaines on the subject(s) of their choice. (Poems can also be written or transferred onto a computer via a teacher-prepared template.)

The Earth
By Ivan

Mountain
High, rocky
Flying, looking, killing
Eagle, power, fear, rabbit
Living, moving, making noise
Deep, beautiful
Valley

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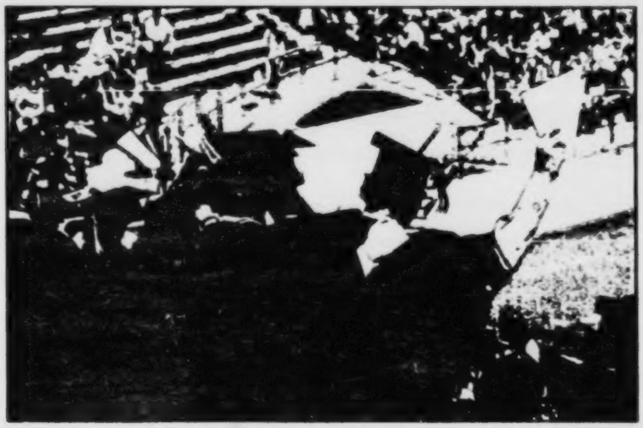

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RESOURCE PAPER:

Promoting Reading Among Mexican-American Children

Literature addresses the universal need for stories. Stories are most meaningful and best able to promote literacy when they speak to a student's world. Good books can help children develop pride in their ethnic identity, provide positive role models, develop knowledge about cultural history, and build self-esteem. However, Mexican American students in the United States often do not experience literature in this way. This digest identifies key challenges, recommends classroom strategies, provides literature selection guidelines, and suggests reading lists for various grade levels.

Mexican American Children's Literature

Literary works written for or by Mexican Americans were not represented in mainstream children's publications in the United States until the 1940s. Beginning in the 1940s, Mexican American literary characters were developed largely by European American writers who were removed from the cultural experience of the Mexican American minority. Consequently, portrayals of Mexican Americans reflected a rural existence and stereotypical images (Harris, 1993).

Between 1940 and 1973, there were only four or five books published each year on Mexican American themes by the major publishers of children's literature. Analyses from the late 1980s and early 1990s showed even fewer—only one to three books each year (Schon, 1988; Cortés, 1992). Of the approximately 5,000 children's books published annually by major publishers in the United States, books about or by Mexican Americans made up one tenth of one percent. These statistics reveal the persistent dearth of children's literature by Mexican American authors through the early 1990s. The literary genres were also limited. Most were folklore, legends, and protest pieces (Barrera, Liguori, & Salas, 1993; Harris, 1993; Tatum, 1990; Schon, 1988).

In the early 1990s, awareness of these issues resulted in the publication of growing numbers of books with Mexican American themes and authors. Small publishing houses, such as Arte Público, Piñata Books, and Bilingual Review Press, have increased dissemination of minority literature and helped launch writers such as Tomas Rivera, Rolando Hinojosa-Smith, and Sandra Cisneros to national recognition (Barrera, Liguori, & Salas, 1993).

Classroom Strategies

Using effective classroom strategies and selecting the best literature for particular groups of students are the two pivots for promoting reading among Mexican American children. The following strategies can help Mexican-origin and other teachers improve both their methods for promoting reading in the classroom and their students' cultural understanding (Murray, 1998a; Barrera, Liguori, & Salas, 1993; Escamilla, 1992; Galda, 1991; Diaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986):

- Explore Mexican American culture, history, and contemporary society through texts such as *Anglos and Mexicans in the Making of Texas 1836-1986* (Montejano, 1987), *The Hispanic Americans* (Meltzer, 1982), or *The Mexicans in America* (Pinchot, 1989).
- Consult book reviews, such as those in *Our Family, Our Friends, Our World: An Annotated Guide to Significant Multicultural Books for Children and Teenagers* (Miller-Lachmann, 1992).

- Take an ethnic literature course. From the 1960s to the present, a growing body of literature written by or for Mexican Americans has emerged.
- Include multicultural readers in the secondary level curriculum, such as *Mexican American Literature* (Tatum, 1990) or *Arrivals: Cross-cultural Experience in Literature* (Huizenga, 1995).
- Incorporate trade books whenever possible, using selection criteria (see Reviewing Literature and Selecting the Best, below).
- When possible, invite local Mexican American authors to talk with or read to classes. Correspond with one or more authors located through websites.
- Participate in school district committees that select curriculum materials. Make a case for including various U.S. minority group histories and literatures to be studied as serious literary works.
- Request in-service seminars by university and school district experts on the use of Mexican American literature and interdisciplinary instruction.
- Organize a committee of volunteer parents to suggest or review selections of readings for the class.
- Invite minority parents or grandparents to present oral traditions by sharing family histories or experiences. Written collections of their stories could be included in the school library.

Reviewing Literature and Selecting the Best

The following checklist provides a few important guidelines for selecting appropriate classroom literature (Murray, 1998b; Escamilla, 1992; Diaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986):

Does the selection present specific and accurate information about the culture?

Do the illustrations and/or text reflect the diversity of the people, or do they reflect stereotypes?

Are Mexican-origin characters depicted in active (not passive or submissive) roles?

Do the story line and/or character development lend themselves to a universal interpretation?

Does the narrative voice in the selection come from a perspective within the culture?

If the cultural elements were removed, would there be a developed plot structure?

Is the culture presented in a positive way? Do the characters come to a constructive resolution of conflicts? Are the characters multidimensional?

Can mainstream works (i.e., literary canon) parallel the themes, issues, or characters of the selection? Identify them, then compare and discuss.

Are the Spanish words or phrases in the text understandable within the context of the sentences? Is there a glossary?

Suggested Selections by Grade Levels

The following authors and works have been reviewed (Murray, 1998) and represent some of the authentic within-the-culture perspectives available today.

Grades 7–9

Baseball in April by Gary Soto

Cool Salsa by Lori Carlson

El Mago by Ron Arias

Everybody Knows Tobie by Daniel Garza

Friends from the Other Side by Gloria Anzaldúa

I Can Hear the Cowbells Ring by Lionel García

Hispanic, Female and Young: An Anthology edited by Phyllis Tashlik

Latino Voices by Frances Aparicio

Mexican American Literature (anthology) edited by Charles Tatum

Neighborhood Odes by Gary Soto

Quinceañera: A Latina's Journey to Womanhood by Mary Lankford

Taking Sides by Gary Soto

The Anaya Reader by Rudolfo Anaya

The Challenge by Rudolfo Anaya

Grades 10–12

Barrio Boy by Ernesto Galarza

Chicano by Richard Vasquez

Fair Gentlemen of Belken County by Rolando Hinojosa-Smith

Get Your Tortillas Together by Carmen Tafolla

Inheritance of Strangers by Nash Candelaria

Latino Rainbow by Carlos Cumpián

Like Water for Chocolate by Laura Esquivel

Mi Abuela Fumaba Puros: My Grandma Smoked Cigars by Sabine Ulibarri

New Chicana/Chicano Writing edited by Charles Tatum

Oddsplayer by Joe Rodríguez

Pieces of the Heart by Gary Soto

Pocho by José Antonio Villarreal

Rituals of Survival: A Woman's Portfolio by Nicholasa Mohr

Schoolland: A Novel by Max Martinez

The Day the Cisco Kid Shot John Wayne by Nash Candelaria

The Heart of Aztlán by Rudolfo Anaya

The House on Mango Street by Sandra Cisneros

The Iguana Killer by Alberto Ríos

The Road to Tamazunchale by Ron Arias

Tortuga by Rudolfo Anaya

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Chapter 5 At-a-Glance

Chapter 5 is the second of four subject-specific chapters that will address ways in which you can help your ELLs meet the standards that are an increasing factor in measuring the success of teaching and learning. Middle and high school teachers, as you know, are primarily focused on their subject areas, and these chapters are designed to supplement the more general information presented in Chapter 3. Also, for a much more detailed discussion of assessment strategies and resources, please refer to Chapter 8, "Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?"

Some highlights of Chapter 5 include:

- Emphasizing problem solving in authentic contexts
- Encouraging development of critical thinking skills
- Teaching the language of mathematics
- Varying instructional methods
- Assessing ELLs within a mathematics program

The bulk of this chapter is adapted from "Preparing Secondary Education Teachers to Work with English Language Learners: Mathematics," by Kris Anstrom, with contributions from Patricia DiCerbo (1998). The project was funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs. The paper in its entirety is available at the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education at the George Washington University website at www.ncbe.gwu.ed.

Emergent English speakers can reason at a much deeper level than they have the vocabulary to express.

—Kris Anstrom

CHAPTER 5:
Making Math Comprehensible to the English Language Learner

Introduction

A central focus in the move toward standards-based learning has been the question of how to ensure equal access to a quality education, with particular attention paid to the special needs of linguistically diverse English language learners (ELLs). In comparison to their English proficient peers, students who are in the process of learning English face a more difficult task in meeting a common set of learning standards. Not only do these students have to focus on the cognitive demands of a given class or assignment—learning new subject matter, procedures, and tasks—they have to do so while learning new vocabulary, linguistic structures, and academic discourse. Moreover, ELL students at the secondary level may have significant gaps in their prior education that influences their ability to meet the cognitive demands of the high school curriculum (McKeon, 1994).

A misconception exists among educators that since mathematics uses symbols, it is culture-free and ideal for facilitating the transition of recent immigrant students into English instruction. This concept is true only of mathematical computations and cannot be applied to a context-based curriculum that stresses understanding and communication (Lang, 1995). Mathematics achievement statistics show that Hispanics, a group with many emergent English speakers, have not excelled in mathematics and are significantly underrepresented in all scientific and engineering careers (Garrison, 1997).

Emphasize Problem Solving in Authentic Contexts

Efforts to reform the teaching of mathematics were given a push in 1989 with the release of Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics or NCTM). This and other reform documents criticized the mathematics curriculum and its instructional methodology. Standards developers advocated moving away from the traditional focus on acquisition of facts, technical skill, and textbook-based instruction to a curriculum of hands-on activities and intellectually challenging problems. According to the report, traditional teaching's emphasis on practice in manipulating expressions and practicing algorithms as a precursor to solving problems ignores the fact that knowledge often emerges from the problems. This suggests that instead of the expectation that skill in computation should precede word problems, experience with problems helps develop the ability to compute. Thus, present strategies for teaching may need to be reversed; knowledge often should emerge from experience with problems. Furthermore, students need to experience genuine problems regularly. A genuine problem is a situation in which, for the individual or group concerned, one or more appropriate solutions have yet to be developed (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1989).

The notion that students will develop their mathematics abilities to a higher degree when motivated by authentic problems is supported by research (McLaughlin & McLeod, 1996) and has led to changes in instructional practices within some school districts. Below, two classroom vignettes demonstrate how problem solving in authentic contexts has been used to improve learning for students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Vignette I.

Applying Mathematical Skills to Solve Problems

In a seventh-grade classroom in Salinas, California, Latino students are huddled over a model of a bridge that they have constructed. They are trying to determine the proportions needed to build a slightly different bridge—one that is three-and-a-half times larger.

By focusing instruction on such themes as architecture (bridges), astronomy (space), and statistics (baseball), mathematics is taught in highly contextualized situations where the focus is on the acquisition of conceptual knowledge, problem solving, and application of mathematical skills to concrete problems (McLaughlin & McLeod, 1996).

Vignette II.

Developing Creative Mathematical Problem Solving

Ms. Simis' eighth-grade math class includes 15 LEP (limited English proficient) students. They speak a number of primary languages and have varying degrees of oral English proficiency, but have sufficient English reading and writing skills to participate in an all-English environment.

Ms. Simis conducts the class in English. The next lesson is about spatial math. At the start of the lesson, the teacher tells the students that she once found this aspect of mathematics to be difficult. With patience and persistence, she says, the students will understand it just as she did. Ms. Simis asks students to design three-dimensional buildings using Legos, following specific constraints: preserve the right and front view but extend the building.

As she introduces the lesson, she asks a student to restate her constraints and instructions; after the second attempt he does so. She then suggests that student "experts" in each group assist other students. The experts are not necessarily the most accomplished; Ms. Simis selects students who have struggled to learn something, so they can help others who are struggling.

The students use Lego blocks to model the building and then draw the structure from all angles on special paper. As they extend the buildings in new ways, Ms. Simis calls these innovations to the attention of the class. When one group says, "We're finished," she challenges, "Now solve it another way" (Berman et al., 1995).

Encourage Development of Critical Thinking Skills

The shift in focus on the part of the mathematics community parallels current thinking about how to best educate ELLs. Padron (1993), for example, argues that the traditional notion of educating disadvantaged students in basic skills before exposing them to more challenging academic material has led to what they term "learned helplessness" or limited mastery of cognitive skills. For ELL students, a basic skills mastery approach can result in an inability to solve problems, to reason effectively, and to develop other higher-order thinking skills. Effectively teaching mathematics content to ELLs requires instructional settings and situations—such as those described in the previous vignettes—where students are engaged in solving interesting, real-life problems that encourage critical thinking along with basic skills development and practice.

Emergent English speakers can reason at a much deeper level than they have the vocabulary to express. Teachers, therefore, must work with students to help them develop and communicate their mathematical reasoning. Although teachers should work to diminish the complexity of the language used in a lesson, they should strive to maintain the complexity of thought.

Practical suggestions for math teachers include:

- Striving to rely less on verbal explanations and more on the use of diagrams, paper models to manipulate, charts, graphs, and real objects (Garrison, 1997).
- Evaluating the responses of ELLs carefully for evidence of clear reasoning.
- Setting high expectations for all students and not letting simple sentences, grammar, or spelling errors hide evidence of good thinking.
- Regarding any comments on the writing and oral presentations of ELLs, teachers should focus primarily on the quality of the reasoning and only secondarily on language. This emphasis encourages students to keep developing their mathematical-reasoning abilities while they are learning to master English.

Teach the Language of Mathematics

Command of mathematical language plays an important role in the development of mathematical ability.

Mathematics courses can provide the necessary experiences for ELL students to acquire higher-order thinking skills and mathematical competencies while also improving their communicative abilities in English. For such learning to occur, though, students need ample opportunities to hear math language and to speak and write mathematically. NCTM guidelines explicitly address this issue by directing teachers to orchestrate problem solving and other classroom discourse in a manner that encourages mathematical literacy (Buchanan & Helman, 1993). The guidelines recommend that teachers pose questions and design tasks that engage students' thinking and ask students to clarify and justify ideas orally and in writing (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1989).

NCTM guidelines and the research on language learning point out that mathematics discourse and syntactical structures have a number of features that make it difficult for ELLs to gauge meaning, such as the use of symbols and technical language, and the lack of redundancy or paraphrase to assist in understanding. Statements and questions are often written in the passive (for example, ten [is] divided by two). The language of mathematics also includes vocabulary specific to the field, such as equation or algebraic, as well as everyday vocabulary that has different meanings when used in mathematical contexts, such as positive and negative, table and irrational. Strings of words, such as "measure of central tendency" and "square root" create complex phrases with specific meanings. Mathematics operations can often be signaled by more than one word or phrase; for example, "add," "plus," "combine," "sum," and "increased by all" indicate addition (Corasaniti Dale & Cuevas, 1992).

It is important to find out whether your students who have attended school in another country use the same processes for computation and measurement. For example, in the U.S., the units of measurement (pounds, feet, inches) are unfamiliar to students who have learned the metric system. In addition, U.S. schools devote extensive practice to the use of fractions, in part because of our system of measurement. U.S. teachers often refer to "half a foot" while international teachers may refer to "five millimeters" rather than "half a centimeter."

Students who are learning English must struggle with these many discourse rules and anomalies. Mathematics teachers who work with ELL students need to employ a dual approach, incorporating instruction on the mathematical language related to the particular concepts being taught along with the concepts themselves (Corasaniti Dale & Cuevas, 1992).

Create Language-Supportive Classrooms

Journal writing offers ELLs the opportunity to practice and develop their emerging mathematics discourse skills.

Writing Word Problems

Orchestrating classroom discourse with ELL students requires more than knowledge of the intricacies of mathematical language; it demands that teachers create classroom environments and instructional situations that support and promote students' linguistic and conceptual development. For example, in working from concrete problem-solving situations to more abstract context-reduced ones, students can begin manipulating mathematical language by writing their own word problems drawn from their mathematical experiences and sharing them with other students.

Using Journals

Asking students to use journals to explore different strategies for solving mathematical problems and to shape and refine their ideas is another useful strategy. Journal writing in mathematics classrooms allows students who may be too shy or intimidated to orally communicate their ideas to "speak" freely without concern for grammar or style. In their journals, students can summarize and relate ideas, clarify concepts, and review topics. They can describe strategies, accomplishments, or frustrations, and express positive or negative emotions (Bagley

& Gallenberger, 1992). Journals can also provide a forum in which students can elaborate on their thinking and problem-solving strategies. Writing in math journals allows students the opportunity to organize and synthesize their mathematical reasoning and to practice the terms introduced in the lesson.

The following ideas for mathematical journal writing, though not specifically intended for ELL students, would be productive with these students. In some instances, native language use could be encouraged; in others, students could be asked to write in English to practice working with mathematical vocabulary and linguistic structures such as those specified in the previous section.

Prompts for Mathematical Journal Writing

1. Construct a word problem about [this] picture that can be solved mathematically. Share your problem with a partner and solve it.
2. What is the most important idea you've learned in algebra this week, and why?
3. Write a paragraph containing as many of these words as possible:____________
4. List some things you must remember when answering this type of question or doing this type of problem. (Bagley and Gallenberger, 1992)

The unit on mathematical probability described next—though, again, not specifically designed for ELL students—incorporates practices found to be effective with second language learners. By integrating reading and discussion with mathematics content, this type of unit supports the development of academic language skills and encourages greater depth in students' understanding of the topic.

Integrating Reading into a Unit on Probability

1. Students are given a written survey in which they are asked to make guesses about the probability of certain events. Through discussion, the teacher elicits students' understandings of probability and encourages questions to guide them in further exploration of the topic.
2. Students then examine the historical events that led to the invention of probability by forming pairs to read selections on probability. In pairs, students take turns reading and then stopping to pose questions and discuss the ideas presented. This "say something" strategy promotes social interaction between students, which supports their efforts to work out a meaning for the text. It also encourages them to take ownership for their reading/learning experiences and promotes an inquiry orientation to learning. Moreover, such a format works well for ELL students who may have difficulty reading textual materials on their own. By working with a partner, they are given extra support for developing both reading skills and their knowledge base on probability.
3. In follow-up exercises, the teacher asks students to put the historical information in their own words, make connections to the present, or discuss what piqued their interest while reading. By focusing on gaming in history, students can begin discussing various games in which probability plays an important role. ELL students who may have experience with different games can share these with the class at this point.
4. As the teacher begins introducing the technical aspects of probability, students review newspapers and magazines for everyday uses of probability and record these instances on note cards that can then form the basis for a discussion on how probability is interpreted in everyday usage. (Siegel & Borasi, 1992)

Connect Mathematics to Students' Background and Experiences

NCTM guidelines include a recommendation for teachers to utilize the cultural and educational background knowledge of their students as a way to help them learn mathematics and make connections to other academic fields (Buchanan & Helman, 1993). Cognitively Guided Instruction (CGI) is an approach to mathematics teaching that supports the NCTM standards by encouraging teachers to use the prior knowledge and developing mathematical thought processes of their ELLs in structuring lessons and curricula. CGI operates from the following premises:

1. Teachers must know how their students mentally organize mathematical content.
2. Instruction should focus on problem solving.
3. Teachers should determine what their students are thinking about the mathematical content studied.
4. Teachers should design instruction based on their students' thinking (Secada, 1992).

A related focus of the NCTM standards is to connect instruction to students' real-life experiences in a way that makes learning meaningful. Secondary-level students who participate in sports can learn to calculate their batting averages or race times; those who have after-school jobs can use their pay stubs to figure the percentages of their various withholding categories. Making learning relevant by connecting what happens in the classroom with the outside world has been shown to contribute to the academic achievement of ELLs and other less advantaged students (Buchanan & Helman, 1993). Such students need to believe that schoolwork makes sense for their current and long-term welfare; for this reason, classroom tasks that are intrinsically interesting or that directly relate to their interests and identity have the best chance of success (McPartland & Braddock, 1993).

Secondary teachers have found that students educated in Mexico check division answers using a procedure that is different from the one used by U.S. students. This can provide an opportunity for all students to engage in a lively discussion about how and why the Mexican procedure works and helps to bolster the esteem of bicultural students (Garrison, 1997).

Vary Instructional Methods

ELLs learn best when instructional methods and approaches match their individual abilities and learning styles.

A final caveat from NCTM advises teachers to provide students with opportunities to learn in different ways, through individual, small group, and whole class work (Buchanan & Helman, 1993). Research on effective instruction for ELL students (August & Pease-Alvarez, 1996) similarly emphasizes the importance of using a variety of methods tailored to students' needs, including direct instruction, guided discovery, cooperative learning, and computer-assisted learning. Which instructional methods are selected depends on lesson goals and objectives, learner characteristics, level(s) of English language proficiency, and available resources.

By using multiple approaches and considering individual learning styles and preferences, teachers can meet the needs of a wider variety of students (Reyhner & Davison, 1993; August & Pease-Alvarez, 1996). For example, traditional mathematics texts and materials tend to present abstract theories and verbal information. Studies of American Indian students, though, indicate that they perform better academically when taught through visual and tactile modes of learning. Developing a multi-sensory, activity-centered mathematics curriculum is one of the ways to address these types of learning style differences and support higher achievement in mathematics (Reyhner & Davison, 1993).

Sample Lesson

Mr. Smith teaches a high school math class that includes some limited-English-proficient students. As the lesson on the interior angles of a polygon begins, he notices that Maria and several other students do not seem to understand the concept of a polygon. To make sure the language foundation is in place, Mr. Smith distributes several geoboards.

Mr. Smith models and asks the students to make a shape on their geoboards. He then separates the students into two groups. He gives one group a card with the word "polygon," and the other group a card with the word "nonpolygon." Pointing to the two different groups of geoboards, he asks students to work with a partner to write what they think a polygon is. As they share their ideas, Mr. Smith writes attributes of a polygon—closed shape, no curves—on the board. He knows that this concrete, hands-on activity promotes mathematical communication. To check for understanding, the students are directed to create a polygon on their geoboards with a rubber band. As Maria holds up her polygon, Mr. Smith writes "square" on the board and pronounces the word for the class. He has modeled both math language and content for the students. Now that the students understand the concept of a polygon, Mr. Smith can go on to cement the connection between geometric vocabulary and the corresponding math content. The confusing concept of interior angles will now be easier for students like Maria to grasp.

Instructional Strategies for Math Teachers

1. Teach all the comparison words necessary to understanding and to interpreting quantitative relationships: more, less, most, least, larger, greater than, equal, half as much, twice as many.

2. Help students prepare a card file of number words. Write the word on one side and the number symbol on the reverse. Add to the file as new number words are learned.

3. Rewrite story problems in simpler English. Use short sentences, pictures, known symbols, and other illustrations that give meaning.

4. Limit the number of problems to be worked. Require a few problems representative of an essential mathematical concept.

5. Check a student's reading skills in English through informal appraisals. Ask the student to read the problem to you. Question the facts given and needed for a solution.

6. Give the special mathematical meanings for words commonly used in English, e.g. point, base, intersection, lateral.

7. Have students prepare their own glossaries of mathematical terms, including words specific to the field and words having special meanings in mathematics. Never assume understanding of unfamiliar words.

8. Encourage the use of diagrams and drawings as aids to identifying concepts and to seeing relationships.

9. Give a problem requiring several steps to solve. Have students number each step in its proper sequence. Provide practice in ordering the steps only; don't ask for an answer or solution; just for the information given, the facts needed, and the process. Ask for appropriate labels for each step.

10. Teachers should encourage beginning English speakers to write answers to complex problems in their primary language, even when the teacher does not understand it. The student, a bilingual peer, or a bilingual teacher/aide can translate it later. This strategy allows ELLs to concentrate on one skill at a time—first on their mathematical thinking, then on their English. By dividing the task into a two-step process, the student can develop both mathematical reasoning and English proficiency. As students become more fluent in English, this two-step process will no longer be needed.

Excerpted from Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers *by E. Thonis*

ELL Assessment within a Mathematics Program

Critical to the development of a student-centered and intellectually challenging curriculum for English language learners is the implementation of an authentic and meaningful assessment plan, one that

- Has a specific and clear purpose
- Incorporates student educational experiences, parents' literacy, and other student background information
- Assesses content knowledge and abilities in English and the native language
- Includes assessment of content knowledge and language proficiency
- Uses a diversity of measures, including portfolios, observations, anecdotal records, interviews, checklists, and criterion-referenced tests (August & Pease-Alvarez, 1996)

Many of the attributes listed above are reflected in the performance assessment criteria developed by local schools and districts and described in the *Guide to Performance Assessment for Linguistically Diverse Students* (Navarrete & Gustkee, 1996). The *Guide* suggests

- Using alternative assessment procedures, such as teachers' observations and students' self-appraisals
- Designing alternative assessment tasks, including exhibits, dramatic renditions, interviews, and writing samples

Alternative assessment, because it requires students to perform authentic academic tasks similar to those originally used to teach the material, is considered a valid means of measuring student achievement. To assess mathematics proficiency, for example, students may be asked to develop a series of graphs based on student characteristics, to run a school store, or pretend to play the stock market. One of the appeals of alternative assessment is that it is continuous, allowing the teacher to track student progress toward meeting instructional objectives throughout the school year. Typically, student responses to alternative assessment tasks are organized in a portfolio designed to meet their individual needs and interests (Chamot, 1993).

The *Guide* (Navarrete & Gustkee, 1996) recommends a number of other techniques for improving assessment of ELLs in content area settings, such as the following:

- Incorporating familiar classroom material as a stimulus to assessment tasks (quotations, charts, graphics, cartoons, and works of art)
- Including questions for small group discussion and individual writing
- Mirroring learning processes with which students are familiar, such as the writing process and reading conferencing activities
- Allowing extra time to complete or respond to assessment tasks
- Designing administration procedures to match classroom instructional practices, simplifying directions in English, and/or paraphrasing in the student's native language
- Permitting students to use dictionaries or word lists

Implementing assessment approaches that accommodate students' varied learning styles and backgrounds gives assessment greater validity and usefulness (Farr & Trumbull, 1997).

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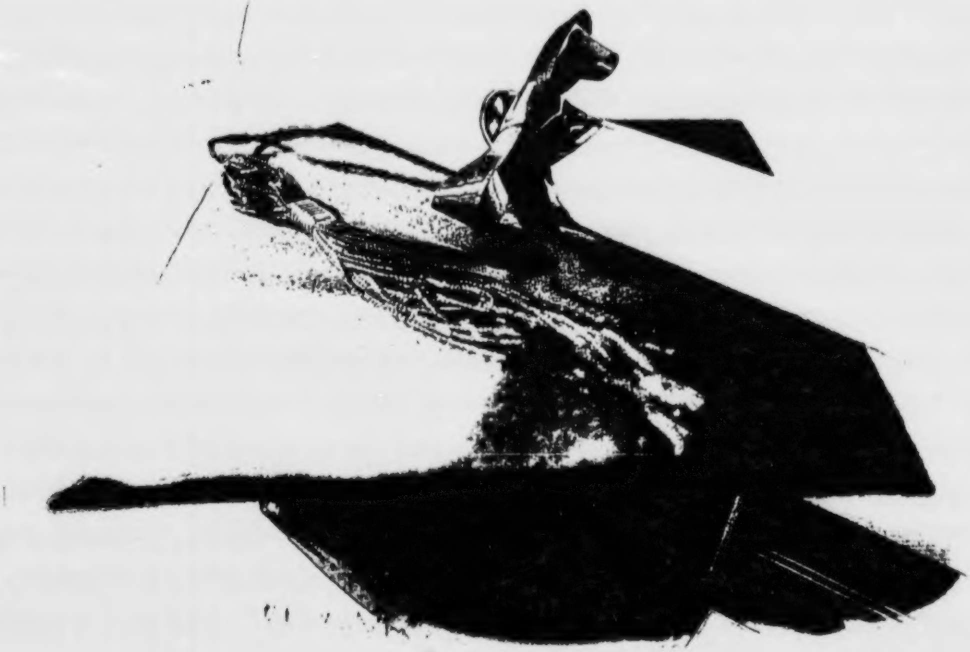

Chapter 6 At-a-Glance

Chapter 6 is the third of four subject-specific chapters that will address ways in which you can help your ELLs meet the standards that are an increasing factor in measuring the success of teaching and learning. Middle and high school teachers, as you know, are primarily focused on their subject areas, and these chapters are designed to supplement the more general information presented in Chapter 3. Also, for a much more detailed discussion of assessment strategies and resources, please refer to Chapter 8, "Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?"

Some highlights of Chapter 6 include

- Examining the academic language of social studies
- Adopting a flexible, thematic-based curriculum
- Linking social studies concepts to prior knowledge
- Using cooperative learning strategies
- Linking instruction to assessment

The bulk of this chapter is adapted from "Preparing Secondary Education Teachers to Work with English Language Learners: Social Studies," by Kris Anstrom, with contributions from Kathleen Steeves and Patricia DiCerbo (1999). The project was funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs. The paper in its entirety is available at the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education at the George Washington University website at www.ncbe.gwu.ed.

A truly multicultural history curriculum allows teachers to build on the cultural and world knowledge of their English language learners through a gradual, flexible process of exploration.

—Kris Anstrom

CHAPTER 6:
Making Social Studies Comprehensible to the English Language Learner

Social Studies Content Standards

Social studies is the integrated study of social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, social studies provides coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and natural sciences. The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world (National Council for the Social Studies, 1994).

National standards for U.S. history bring together several areas of social studies, including world and U.S. history, geography, civics, and economics, under the umbrella of historical understanding. Each of these areas or "spheres of human activity" is addressed within ten eras encompassing the whole of American history from its pre-European beginnings to contemporary times. The national history standards emphasize that what is meant by historical understanding is much more than the passive absorption of facts, dates, names, and places. Rather, a broad understanding of history means that students can engage in historical thinking—the ability to think through cause-and-effect relationships, reach sound historical interpretations, and conduct historical inquiries and research leading to the knowledge on which informed decisions in contemporary life are based. The standards documents outline five areas in which students should develop such competence. These are

- Chronological thinking, which involves developing a clear sense of historical time
- Historical comprehension, including the ability to read historical narratives, identify basic elements of the narrative structure, and describe the past through the perspectives of those who were there
- Historical analysis and interpretation
- Historical research, which involves formulating historical questions, determining historical time and context, judging credibility and authority of sources, and constructing historical narratives or arguments
- Historical issues analysis and decision making, including the ability to identify problems, analyze points of view, and decide whether actions and decisions were good or bad (National Center for History in the Schools, 1994)

These standards should be expected of all students, and all students should be provided equal access to the educational opportunities necessary to achieve them.

Making Social Studies Content Accessible to English Language Learners

All students, including English language learners, should be given equal access to the educational opportunities necessary to meet the new history standards.

A good example of how content standards can incorporate what is known about exemplary instruction for English language learners comes from the national English Language Arts (ELA) standards. The guidelines encourage teachers to adopt instructional approaches that help make literary material more comprehensible to their ELL students, and to actively teach strategies that show students how to comprehend, interpret, evaluate and appreciate a range of texts (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1996). Demonstrating the use of graphic organizers, for example, is an effective way to help students visualize and classify content, characters, ideas, plot, or theme. Working with word clusters, semantic maps and webs, storyboards, Venn diagrams, and similar graphic organizers also allows students to express difficult ideas by reformulating abstract information into concrete form (Sasser, 1992). Moreover, teacher explanation and modeling of reading strategies encourages students to explicitly focus on the ways in which they draw meaning from a text and to use that knowledge across the curriculum.

The idea that ELA and other content standards should reflect knowledge of effective ELL instruction was a key recommendation of one of the early contributors to current national content standards, the Stanford Working Group on Federal Education Programs for Limited English Proficient Students (August, Hakuta, & Pompa, 1994). Their report suggested a comprehensive focus on the needs of ELLs and the importance of depicting the broad cultural and linguistic diversity, or multiculturalism, of this country. An overriding difficulty for standards developers, though, has been how best to incorporate multicultural content and exactly what multicultural issues to address. "Do we look at history and talk about all of the warts? Do we include women and minorities? Do we make them part of the history or side bars?" (K. Steeves, personal communication, February, 1997). Simply adding a "multicultural day" or ethnic food festival to the curriculum is not enough since it does not involve students in thinking deeply about the meaning of cultural and linguistic differences (Farr & Trumbull, 1997). A truly multicultural history curriculum allows teachers to build on the cultural and world knowledge of their English language learners through a gradual, flexible process of exploration.

Academic Language

Social studies requires very high literacy skills because much of the instruction comes through teacher lecture and textbook reading. Success in social studies also depends on accumulation of background knowledge. In general, each grade's curriculum builds on the previous year's. English language learners entering the school system for the first time rarely have the benefit of the previous year's knowledge. Social studies information also tends to be abstract and decontextualized. Unlike science classrooms, social studies classrooms do not usually make use of mediating tools such as manipulatives and hands-on experiments.

In examining the academic language of social studies, some language features are common to all classrooms, while other features are more specific to social studies (e.g. geographic locations, famous people, and events). In addition, social studies teachers engage in numerous language functions (e.g. giving directions, previewing, reviewing), and students are expected to complete a variety of language-related tasks (e.g. do research, write an essay, present an oral report).

Examination of textbooks used in middle school American history courses revealed common text structures. The books examined were found to contain insufficient glossaries, precipitating the need for students to consult dictionaries, teachers, and peers for definitions of new vocabulary. Most texts are written along a chronological pattern, while others use a cause-and-effect framework. Analyses of these texts, along with lesson presentations and assignments, showed that certain linguistic signals cue students to time references, cause and effect, and comparison and contrast in text structures and assignments. Such signals include verb tenses and conditions, expressions of time, rhetorical markers (e.g. temporal phrases, conjunctions), and causative words (e.g. as a result, so). Classroom observations showed that students who were taught to recognize these cues improved their reading and writing skills (Short, 1994). ELLs benefit from explicit instruction of these "signal words" and how they are used to convey meaning.

Words that Signal the Organizational Pattern—Social Studies

Classification	**Cause**	**Effect**
several, various	reason	outcome
many, numerous	due to	result
and, too, also	on account of	as a result
one, another	leads to, led to	therefore
some, others	since	thus
still others	because	so
furthermore		then
first, second...		in order to
1, 2, 3...		consequently
finally		hence
		for this reason
		finally
Sequence	**Comparison**	**Contrast**
before	as	but
initially	similarly	on the other hand
previously	like	notwithstanding
how	as well as	at the same time
immediately	likewise	in spite of
presently	in comparison	though
next	both	conversely
when	all	yet
first, second	by the same token	despite
meanwhile	furthermore	regardless
formerly		however
subsequently		whereas
later		nonetheless
after		although
last		on the contrary
ultimately		in contrast
finally		instead
		unlike
		rather
		for all that
		nevertheless
		even though

Adapted by Maura Sedgeman, Dearborn Public Schools Bilingual Program, Dearborn, MI, and A Guidebook for Teaching Study Skills and Motivation, *by Bernice Jensen Bragstad and Sharyn Mueller*

Adopt a Flexible, Thematic-Based Curriculum

Thematically organized curricula have been found to work well with English language learners.

The use of thematic units as the predominant mode of organizing curriculum (Farr & Trumbull, 1997) is very effective with ELLs. The thematic approach is especially powerful in integrating instruction across disciplines since lessons can be designed to help students make connections and achieve a deeper understanding of a concept from several disciplinary views. *School Reform and Student Diversity: Case Studies of Exemplary Practices for LEP Students*, for example, describes one middle school's use of thematic instruction to unify social studies and language arts. Dr. Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream" speech served as the focus for a unit on dreams and the ways in which they are realized. As part of the unit, students interviewed immigrants using questions developed in class, wrote essays about the immigrants' experiences, and investigated the immigrants' dreams concerning the U.S. (Berman et al., 1995).

Give Students Adequate Time to Learn Social Studies Content

Effective social studies curricula emphasize depth of coverage over breadth. Along with a multicultural, thematic perspective, an effective social studies curriculum would allow students the time to achieve a thorough understanding of key concepts. Curriculum in social studies, as in many other subject areas, depends on continuity, with content in any one course building upon content supposedly mastered in previous courses (Harklau, 1994). Most secondary English language learners have not had eight or nine years of instruction in U.S. elementary and middle schools, and their prior knowledge will be different from that of their peers. Furthermore, having to decipher unfamiliar vocabulary and linguistic constructions can impede anyone's ability to understand new concepts, but especially those students who are below grade level academically (King et al., 1992).

Link Social Studies Concepts to Prior Knowledge

Utilizing students' experiential knowledge is a key factor in successful curriculum development for English language learners.

One of the more encouraging approaches to social studies curriculum design starts with the assumption that the learner has little or no previous content knowledge and uses basic, familiar concepts to gradually develop related ideas into broader units of academic study. For example, prior to beginning study of the American Civil War, class discussion may center on students' personal experiences and problems with being different or on the notion that differences can lead to conflict. Extending this understanding into social, political, and economic differences among groups of people, and specifically between the North and the South prior to the Civil War, is the next logical step. Finally, the Civil War itself can be introduced within a context made rich by personal stories and broad-based content knowledge. In this way, teachers can utilize students' experiential knowledge by relating it to important social studies concepts and events. Similarly, a unit on westward movement in the U.S. developed within the context of larger patterns of migration and immigration can lead ELLs to explore how they fit into these patterns of movement as newcomers to the U.S. (King et al., 1992).

Using Oral Histories

Linking students' prior knowledge to the curriculum is, in fact, the emphasis of the oral history approach, with students' backgrounds and experiences forming the raw historical data from which a social studies curriculum can be built (Olmedo, 1993). Oral history projects help students understand that history is composed of stories in which they and their families have participated. Complex issues, such as religious persecution, tyranny of autocratic rulers, and the rights and responsibilities of self-governance, are more accessible when developed from students' backgrounds and experiences. Moreover, in working with data obtained from oral histories, students will be engaging in many of the historical thinking skills outlined in the U.S. history standards, such as chronological thinking, reading historical narratives, describing the past through the perspectives of those who were there, and historical analysis and interpretation. In addition, oral histories serve as an avenue through which students can strengthen their own emerging language skills. Interviewing and presenting information to classmates can improve oral proficiency, while translating and transcribing oral interviews into English develops literacy. Using an oral history approach also serves to promote parental involvement in student learning, native language use in meeting instructional goals, validation of the student's culture and experience, and enhancement of self-esteem—all critical factors in the academic achievement of English language learners (Olmedo, 1993). The nine steps illustrate this incremental approach.

Steps in Implementing an Oral History Approach

1. Identify which social studies concepts to teach. Some common concepts taken from the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Scope and Sequence (1989) include the following: dependence and interdependence, the interaction of human beings and their environment, resource development and use, scarcity, migration, acculturation, the impact of economic or technological changes on societies, and issues of war causes and results.

2. Develop questions or an interview guide jointly with students that can be used to interview family members, neighbors, or someone in the ethnic community.

3. Translate or assist students in translating interview questions into the students' native languages.

4. Provide training and practice in using tape recorders and in conducting interviews.

5. Invite a guest speaker from the community to be interviewed by the class as a practice activity.

6. Have students select an interviewee.

7. Assign students or small groups the tasks of interviewing, transcribing or summarizing the [interview] tape, and sharing knowledge gained with the class.

8. Create a list of themes from the students' interviews, and use them along with portions of the text or other classroom materials to reinforce social studies concepts.

9. Finally, have students compare and contrast the experiences of their interviewees with information learned from reading historical biographies, excerpts from texts, and other source materials (Olmedo, 1993).

Accommodate a Variety of Learning Styles

Another important strategy for social studies teachers working with English language learners is the use of visuals and realia that transcend language barriers and support individual learning styles. Prints and picture sets relating to specific themes are useful for conveying information and inducing critical thinking (King et al., 1992). Historical artifacts can be used to assess prior knowledge and encourage questions, both of which are integral to the inquiry process. Artifacts, such as costumes, tools, photographs, record books, wills, written documents, and other objects, encourage students to begin thinking about their own family history and to consider artifacts their own families may possess. Bringing in artifacts from home also motivates students to use higher-order thinking skills to make sense of data and to generalize about a particular historical period. Once students view history from a more personal perspective and as a subject relevant to their own lives, they can begin to build concepts of what a particular era means.

Use Cooperative Learning Strategies

(See more on "Cooperative Learning" in Chapter 3, page 50).

Cooperative learning strategies highlight ELLs' strengths while targeting their weaknesses. Interactive, cooperative learning offers ELLs the opportunity to communicate their thoughts and ideas in a supportive and non-threatening environment and to receive instruction from their peers that is individually tailored to their language ability and academic needs. Working in cooperative learning groups also increases the variety of ways information can be presented and related to what is already known. Furthermore, active listening and speaking in cooperative settings provides a rich language environment for both comprehensible input and practice in speaking that students cannot get in a more traditional classroom environment (Olsen, 1992). It is important, though, to prevent cooperative learning from degenerating into groups where the best students do all the work and ELLs are observers rather than participants (McPartland & Braddock II, 1993). The vignette is an example of a social studies cooperative learning activity structured so that all students must participate and different points of view are developed.

Within a social studies classroom, communication in small groups can assume many forms, one of which is role playing, a widely used strategy for fostering the development of communication skills. Students might be asked to assume certain historical perspectives and to problem-solve from those perspectives. For example, groups could function as American Indian tribal councils in order to examine a political issue facing that council during a particular historical period. As with more structured cooperative learning activities, role-plays allow students the opportunity to practice a variety of communication skills, such as reporting a group decision or presenting findings to the class (K. Steeves, personal communication, February, 1997).

Social Studies Cooperative Learning Activity: Creative Controversy

Students are divided into home teams and given two maps and two readings that give different answers to the question, "Who discovered America?" Depending on ability levels (language and knowledge), students might master their parts individually, in pairs, or in temporary expert groups of students from all the home teams who have the same map or reading. If expert teams are homogeneous for language, the native language can be used; if heterogeneous, more proficient English speakers can explain and clarify for the less fluent. Upon returning to home teams, each student must argue for his/her explanation of who discovered America. The cooperative learning structure roundtable can be used to ensure that all team members offer their information. In a roundtable, there is one piece of paper and one pen for each group. Each student makes a contribution in writing then passes the paper and pen to the next student. This activity can also be done orally (Olsen, 1992).

Plus/Minus/Interesting (PMI) Cooperative Learning Activity

The objective of PMI is to teach thinking skills. This activity teaches students that decisions should be made after considering good, bad, and interesting points, rather than immediate emotions. Student groups are presented with a choice or decision for which they must do a PMI, that is, come up with the plus points, minus points, and the interesting points or issues to be considered. This can be followed up with a persuasive essay or speech.

Running a PMI Lesson

- Present an easy practice issue to the class. Do a brief PMI together on this issue so that they will understand the process.
- Present the issue that the students will discuss in depth. As an example, let's use the issue, "We should have school six days a week." Break the students into small groups and assign each member a cooperative task (described below). Have the writer record answers on newsprint. Allow 7–10 minutes.

Example of PMI on the topic of "We should have school six days a week":

Plus	**Minus**	**Interesting**
More money	Teacher burnout	More parental participation
More hours to learn	Student burnout	Would students learn more?
Less TV	Less family time	More supervision
See friends more		

- Post groups' answers on board. Have each reporter present his/her group's ideas. Or have groups read ideas one at a time, and if other groups have the same idea, they cross it off their page. If a group has an idea that no one else thought of, they give themselves a point.
- Discuss the importance of using this thinking skill. As a follow-up, students can do a PMI independently on another issue, or they can develop a persuasive essay or speech on the topic discussed that day.

Cooperative Tasks

To ensure that each group member participates, assign a task to each one.

- Writer—person who records group's ideas on paper
- Reporter—person who shares ideas orally with class
- Messenger—person who asks the teacher any questions the group may have

By the third cooperative activity, the students know exactly what to do. At the end of each activity, time should be allotted for discussing how well each group cooperated and what can be improved next time.

(PMI is adapted from CoRT Thinking*, by Edward de Bono)*

A/B Activities: Getting Information from Your Partner

- You and your partner have the same chart with different information missing on each chart.
- Find the blanks on your chart, and ask your partner for the information to put in the blanks.
- For location, ask "where" questions; for population, ask "how many" questions; for acquired, ask "when" questions; for present status, ask "what" questions.
- When you get information from your partner, write in the blank on your paper.
- Your partner will ask you different questions about your chart. Take turns asking questions and writing down information.
- Don't look at each other's papers!!

United States Overseas Territories and Possessions

Name	Location	Population	Acquired	Present Status
Alaska	Pacific	412,000		State (1959)
Midway Islands	Pacific	2,300	1867	Possession
Hawaii	Pacific	981,000	1898	
Guam	Pacific	106,000	1898	Territory
Philippines	Pacific		1898	Independent (1946)
Puerto Rico	Caribbean	3,197,000		Commonwealth
Wake Island		300	1899	
American Samoa	Pacific		1899	Territory
Canal Zone	Panama	42,000	1903	U.S./Panama Control
Virgin Islands	Caribbean		1916	Territory
Northern Mariana Islands	Pacific	16,680	1947	Commonwealth (1982)
Marshall & Caroline Islands	Pacific	116,555	1947	U.S. Trust (UN) Territory of the Pacific Islands

Figure 6-3A (developed by Judy Winn-Bell Olsen)

A/B Activities: Getting Information from Your Partner

- You and your partner have the same chart with different information missing on each chart.
- Find the blanks on your chart, and ask your partner for the information to put in the blanks.
- For location, ask "where" questions; for population, ask "how many" questions; for acquired, ask "when" questions; for present status, ask "what" questions.
- When you get information from your partner, write in the blank on your paper.
- Your partner will ask you different questions about your chart. Take turns asking questions and writing down information.
- Don't look at each other's papers!!

United States Overseas Territories and Possessions

Name	Location	Population	Acquired	Present Status
Alaska	Pacific		1867	State (1959)
Midway Islands		2,300	1867	Possession
Hawaii	Pacific		1898	State (1959)
Guam	Pacific	106,000	1898	
Philippines	Pacific	50,310,000	1898	Independent (1946)
Puerto Rico		3,197,000	1898	
Wake Island	Pacific	300	1899	Possession
American Samoa	Pacific	32,000		Territory
Canal Zone	Panama	42,000	1903	U.S./Panama Control
Virgin Islands		96,000	1916	Territory
Northern Mariana Islands	Pacific	16,680		Commonwealth (1982)
Marshall & Caroline Islands	Pacific	116,555	1947	U.S. Trust (UN) Territory of the Pacific Islands

Figure 6-3B (developed by Judy Winn-Bell Olsen)

Dramatization / Role-Playing Activity

Role plays are an effective way to present essential background information that will help ELLs comprehend new material. The following sample activity illustrates how a role play can be set up to dramatize the main points of a lesson on the rules of lawful search and seizure.

Due Process—Search and Seizure (Grades 11 and 12)

Overview: The students will observe first hand a simulation of what the New Jersey vs. T.L.O. (1985) court case was about.

Purpose: To allow students the chance to see how the case developed and how it may affect them today.

Objectives: Students will be able to

- Identify the events leading to the court case on New Jersey vs. T.L.O.
- Identify the conflicting issues in the case.
- Explain the decision of the U.S. Supreme Court as it relates to the case.

Activities:

Part One: As the students are entering the classroom, you come up to a student and start accusing her of having cheated on a previous test. You grab her purse and dump out the contents. There you find a cheat sheet for your test, a controlled substance, and a number of other items. You take that student down to the office immediately so justice might be served. (That student is the only one who is in on the fake scenario.)

Part Two: Upon returning to class, you begin to discuss the T.I.O. case.

- Explain the events that lead up to the case.
- Identify the individuals in the case.
- Allow students to identify rights on both sides of the case.
- Ask the students to express their feelings about the case and also about what happened in class at the beginning of the hour. Encourage students from other countries to share their own experiences.
- Have the accused student return to class.
- On the board, have students list why the search was legal or not.
- Have students determine how the Supreme Court ruled and why.
- Give the students the Court's ruling and why they ruled the way they did.

Part Three: Have students get in groups of three and write a dramatization of a case involving search and seizure.

1. The dramatization should be clear and easy to follow.
2. The dramatization should be three to four minutes in length.
3. Each group will have a discussion leader help the class identify the:
    a. Events
    b. Conflicting Issues
    c. Possible Decisions

* *As a teacher, you may want to share real court cases (and their decisions) that are similar to those of the students'.*

Resources/Materials Needed

- A prepared student to role play the accused part
- Case background on the New Jersey vs. T.L.O. case
- Guidelines for what you want the groups to do
- Basic background on other cases that students may dramatize

Tying it all Together

This method is a great way to allow students to have first hand experience with the issue of search and seizure but not be the victim. It also provides the opportunity for students who may have lived in other countries to draw on their personal experiences and feelings. Immigrant students often have very different perspectives because the system of laws and enforcement of laws may vary markedly from country to country. It may require some background on the teacher's part to relate cases to the students' dramatizations. Or the teacher could just assign a case to each group and have them base their dramatization on it.

Instructional Strategies for Social Studies Teachers

1. Supplement the reading material with films, globes, maps, charts, realia, etc.
2. Be alert to language, concepts, and values which may be unclear in written materials because of cultural differences.
3. Assist students in developing individual card files of needed terms specific to history, geography, and government.
4. Demonstrate to students how to use a table of contents, index, and glossary. Give them the needed terms, such as page, section, paragraph, chapter, part, appendix, etc.
5. Maintain a resource book of historical and geographical information about the country and history of each student.
6. Show students ways in which to use a time line.
7. Provide students with biographies of famous people from a wide variety of cultural groups.
8. Explicitly teach the words that signal sequence—*in the first place, next, then, following, before*, etc.
9. Collect fiction books that are in simplified English. Many fiction works contain a wealth of factual material.
10. Check with the publisher to find out if your textbook has a Spanish language version. This will be a helpful resource for your limited English proficient students who are literate in their native language.
11. Tape your lecture so that the emergent English learner can listen to it more than once.

Excerpted from Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers *by E. Thonis*

Linking Instruction to Assessment

Putting in place an effective program of instruction requires the kinds of authentic and meaningful instruction discussed here, along with equally authentic and meaningful assessment. Assessment that requires students to perform academic tasks similar to those originally used to teach the material, such as the oral history projects, team tasks, and role plays described earlier, provide an effective alternative to standardized, multiple-choice tests, which tend to underestimate ELLs' knowledge of academic content. An additional advantage of using authentic assessment is that it allows teachers and students the opportunity to track academic achievement throughout the school year. When a number of activities or tasks are combined, they are typically organized in a portfolio, with teachers and students periodically discussing which samples of student work to include and how well students are progressing (Chamot, 1993).

Along with authenticity, a good assessment plan for ELL students has all or most of the following attributes:

- Tests for content knowledge geared to language proficiency
- Assesses students' content knowledge and abilities in the native language as well as in English (if possible)
- Uses a diversity of measures, such as portfolios, observations, anecdotal records, interviews, checklists, and criterion-referenced tests to measure content knowledge and skills
- Ensures teacher awareness of the purpose of the assessment, such as whether the test is intended to measure verbal or writing skills, language proficiency, or content knowledge
- Takes into account students' backgrounds, including their educational experiences and parents' literacy (August & Pease-Alvarez, 1996)
- Adds context to assessment tasks with familiar visual prompts, questions for small group discussion and individual writing, and activities that mirror learning processes with which students are familiar
- Includes administration procedures to match classroom instructional practices, e.g., cooperative small groups, individual conferences, and assessment in the language of instruction
- Allows extra time to complete or respond to assessment tasks
- Makes other accommodations, such as permitting students to use dictionaries or word lists (Navarrete & Gustkee, 1996)

Examples of Alternative Assessments:

Rubric
Pocahontas—The Video Compared with the Book in a Paper

In order to receive a letter or number grade, you must fulfill the following requirements:

A *or* 4.0	B *or* 3.0	C *or* 2.0	D *or* 1.0	F
Title at top Name, date, and period on product In ink or typed on computer Strong topic sentence 3–4 examples of differences to support your topic sentence Few errors in spelling, grammar, punctuation (1–2) Strong concluding sentence or a good ending Facts correct from the book and video On time with web and rough drafts stapled under final copy	Title at top Name, date, and period on product In ink Good topic sentence 2–3 examples of differences to support your topic sentence Errors in grammar 3–4; doesn't interfere with meaning Concluding sentence restates topic sentence Facts correct On time with web, rough drafts under final copy	Has a title Has your name, date and period In ink or pencil Has 2 examples and discussed the topic 4–5 errors present Not clear in purpose	No title Name on paper 3–4 sentences 5–6 errors present No conclusion No clear purpose; just a few ideas	Paper not attempted

Booklet on an Indian Tribe

The Project: Choose a Native American tribe, and create a book about that tribe.

Why: To learn more about one Indian tribe. To use the library, information we have talked about, computer technology, books, and handouts.

Materials: 8x14 construction paper, pens, markers, glue, books, computers, and atlases.

The report must contain each of the criteria listed below. Check off one before going on to the next one.

Yes or No		Section	Criteria
		Cover	Name of tribe, meaning of name and draw a symbol of the tribe.
		Page 1	Map of the U.S. with area where this tribe lived shaded. Show states they lived in and mark major rivers, mountains, or plains.
		Page 2	Natural resources. List crops, animals hunted, major food sources.
		Page 3	Type of shelter or housing used by this tribe. Draw a picture.
		Page 4	List and draw crafts or weapons this tribe used or made.
		Page 5	What jobs did men do? What jobs did women do?
		Page 6	Name a famous leader or person of this tribe. When did he or she live? What problem did he or she face? Or what good thing did he or she do or discover?
		Page 7	Tell about the religion this tribe had. Tell about any special ceremonies they had. Which god did they pray to?

Sample Activity: The First Americans

Name: ______________________________

Date: ______________________________

The First Americans, pp. 28–29
Paragraph Summaries

Next to each summary, write the paragraph number that the summary describes.

☐ The Native Americans or American Indians walked because they were hunting animals or looking for plants to eat. After thousands of years, they lived over all North and South America.

☐ There were many different Native American cultures in North America because the land has many different environments.

☐ In this chapter, we will learn how diverse people came to the Americas from Asia, Europe, and Africa. We will learn why they left their homelands.

☐ The first people were nomads who hunted large animals with stone tools.

☐ By the year 1400, there were over 500 different Native American groups that represented 10,000,000 people. Next, we will study two different groups.

☐ The first Americans migrated from Asia across land in the Bering Strait more than 20,000 years ago.

☐ After the climate became warmer and many large animals died, the people hunted smaller animals, fished, and ate plants. Some people became farmers.

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Chapter 7 At-a-Glance

Chapter 7 is the fourth of four subject-specific chapters that will address ways in which you can help your ELLs meet the standards that are an increasing factor in measuring the success of teaching and learning. Middle and high school teachers, as you know, are primarily focused on their subject areas, and these chapters are designed to supplement the more general information presented in Chapter 3. Also, for a much more detailed discussion of assessment strategies and resources, please refer to Chapter 8, "Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?"

Some highlights of Chapter 7 include:

- Involving students in scientific inquiry
- Teaching the language of science
- Using experiments to teach scientific discourse
- Demonstrating learning strategies in science
- Using appropriate assessment

The bulk of this chapter is adapted from "Preparing Secondary Education Teachers to Work with English Language Learners: Science," by Kris Anstrom, with contributions from Sharon Lynch and Patricia DiCerbo (1998). The project was funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs. The paper in its entirety is available at the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education at the George Washington University website at www.ncbe.gwu.ed.

Because worldviews are shared belief systems in children's sociocultural environments, the scientific worldview presents a challenging "border crossing" for diverse students.

—W. W. Cobern

CHAPTER 7:

Making Science Comprehensible to the English Language Learner

Introduction

Vignette I depicts what has become a common scenario in American classrooms, ELLs in mainstream settings. Not so common, though, is the kind of "sheltered" instructional approach shown here. More often, responsibility for teaching English language learners is up to mainstream teachers who have had little or no preparation in working with these students (McKeon, 1994). Teachers without the necessary training—and who identify themselves as content specialists rather than language teachers—may feel resentful or apprehensive of their ELL students (Constantino, 1994). Since the number of ELLs enrolled in our nation's schools shows little sign of abating, it is critical to adequately prepare mainstream teachers for meeting the diverse needs of this group.

One of the issues state and local education agencies have struggled with in developing standards is the extent to which linguistically and culturally diverse learners should be expected to meet the standards they have set. In mainstream American classrooms, native speakers, for whom English is nearly automatic, can focus primarily on the cognitive tasks of an academic assignment. The student who is in the process of learning English, though, must focus on both the cognitive and the linguistic—learning new information, procedures, and related tasks—while also learning new vocabulary, structures, and academic discourse (McKeon, 1994). Moreover, at the secondary level, ELL students only have "a window of a few years" to acquire the language ability necessary for successful academic work (Whitten, Lathrop, Hays, & Longo, 1995). Thus, setting rigorous academic standards does not guarantee that all students will have the opportunity to achieve them.

I. A Collaborative Approach to Teaching Sheltered Biology

(See Chapter 2, page 28 for more information on ESL–Mainstream Collaboration.)

Here is an example of a lesson that is "team taught" by a mainstream and an ESL teacher:

As the bell signals the beginning of the second block period, 30 sophomore biology students take their seats at seven tables spaced evenly around the classroom. Interspersed among the students are ten who have relocated to this large, suburban high school from such places as Ghana, Liberia, Bangladesh, Vietnam, Korea, Pakistan, and El Salvador. At first glance, it is difficult to separate the native English speakers from the students who are learning to speak English (ELLs). Two teachers, a biology teacher and an English as a second language (ESL) teacher, conduct the class. The biology teacher introduces the content, in this case a lab experiment on measuring lung capacity, while the ESL teacher assists by clarifying certain points, writing key expressions on the board, or by circulating and quietly checking with individual students.

The biology instructor introduces the lab, which consists of blowing up a balloon and measuring its width in order to determine differing lung capacities. She uses exaggerated gestures and breathing motions to illustrate, simultaneously relating her actions to key terms she has written on the board. She speaks somewhat more slowly than usual and enunciates her words carefully. To explain the lab assignment, she designates individual students to read and demonstrate the different steps. When an ELL student is called upon to read, the ESL teacher assists by helping with pronunciation. Part of the lab involves using mathematical formulas, which have been written on the board. The ESL teacher adds the formula for determining averages and gives an example to clarify. The biology teacher illustrates the amount of residual volume in the lungs by holding up a glass beaker so the class can visualize the approximate amounts for men and women.

After the teachers finish explaining the lab procedures, students work with partners at their lab tables. For the most part, ELL students are paired with native English speakers. The classroom is noisy with the sounds of blowing up balloons and chattering back and forth among the students. Both teachers circulate throughout the room, answering questions and checking student work. The ESL teacher, who is working intensively with two students near the front of the class, pulls one student to the board to help him with a mathematical formula. She first questions him to find out what he knows, then supplies the needed information. Finally, she has him apply his own measurements to the formula. Later, she models ways for a native speaker to help her ELL partner without actually doing the calculations for her. Throughout the lesson, the focus is on understanding the lab and completing it within the hour and a half time period. Some of the ELL students will meet later with the ESL teacher to work on questions relating to the lab; a block of time has been set aside toward the end of the day for such individualized instruction.

National Science Education Standards and the English Language Learner

Truly effective science teaching encourages all students to learn science, to develop scientific habits of mind, and to become scientifically literate (S. Lynch, personal communication, March 1997). The National Science Education Standards define scientific literacy in the following manner:

> *Scientific literacy means that a person can ask, find, or determine answers to questions derived from curiosity about everyday experiences. It means that a person has the ability to describe, explain, and predict natural phenomena. Scientific literacy entails being able to read with understanding articles about science in the popular press and to engage in social conversations about the validity of the conclusions. Scientific literacy implies that a person can identify scientific issues underlying national and local decisions and express positions that are scientifically and technologically informed. A literate citizen should be able to evaluate the quality of scientific information on the basis of its source and the methods used to generate it* (National Research Council, 1996).

Meeting the goal of a scientifically literate population requires a radical departure from traditional science teaching strategies--strategies that emphasize the acquisition of specific facts and procedures and stress the idea that scientists work according to a narrowly conceived, logical "scientific method." Rather, the national science standards advocate a broader approach to scientific inquiry that includes: (1) the diverse ways in which scientists study the natural world and propose explanations based on the evidence derived from their work and (2) the methods students use to develop an understanding of scientific ideas. Scientific inquiry involves students in observing phenomena, asking questions, referring to written and other source material to determine what is already known, proposing solutions, planning experiments, and predicting and communicating outcomes. Authors of the science standards view inquiry as the primary means of understanding science (National Research Council, 1996).

Involve Students in Scientific Inquiry

Effective science education for English language learners makes use of a variety of venues through which a student can learn a particular science concept.

The restructuring of science education to incorporate more opportunities for investigating science concepts corresponds to what is known about effective education for English language learners. Inquiry techniques, such as data collection and reporting, allow ELLs to use language in a purposeful and meaningful way. Interviewing a botanist, for example, not only enhances their understanding of plant science, but also encourages the use of written and oral language as students go through the process of developing an interview guide, asking questions, and recording answers.

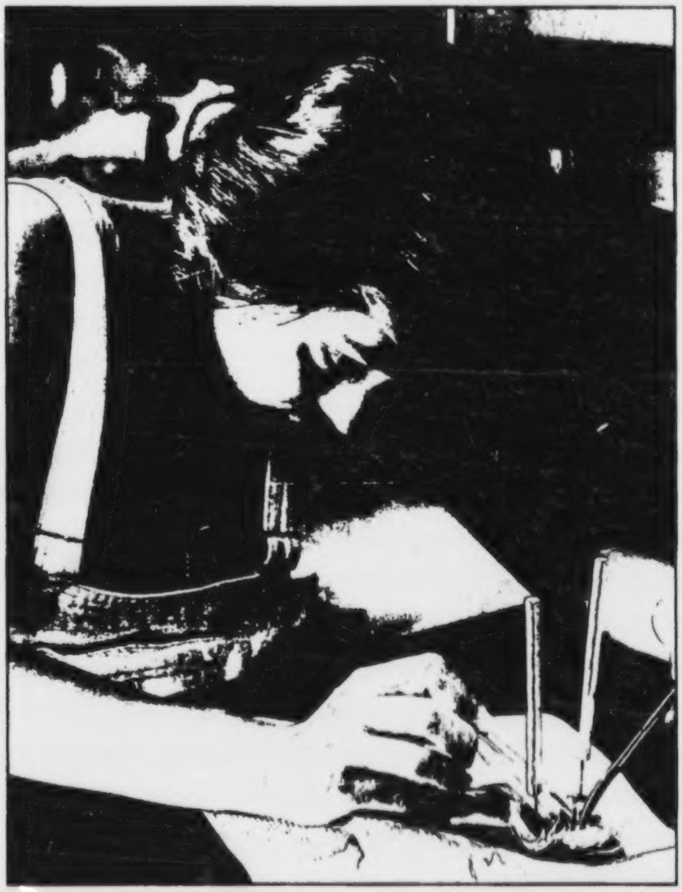
Giving students a "menu" or choice of projects to complete is another way to strengthen their comprehension of difficult science material. By providing a combination of highly contextualized, less cognitively demanding assignments and more abstract, less contextualized tasks, students with different learning styles will have equal access to the curriculum (Rupp, 1992). However, when using a menu approach, care must be taken that information is not watered down. To be effective, each menu choice should be tied to a central objective; if the goal is to have students understand the basic properties of a cell, the list of projects might include drawing and labeling a cell diagram, preparing an oral report on the structure and function of a cell, or summarizing the current research on cloning (S. Lynch, personal communication, March 1997).

Advocate for a Less-Is-More Curriculum

Science curriculum development involves the careful organization of concepts to form connections and patterns across the discipline.

Involving students as active participants in the process of scientific inquiry often requires more time than traditional teaching methods. A key focus of the national science standards is to reduce the number of concepts that must be taught so that students can develop a deeper understanding of how science works.

Educators of English language learners (e.g., Chamot, 1993) suggest developing a more narrowly focused curriculum that includes major principles and unanswered questions rather than an accumulation of random bits of knowledge. Those who design science curriculum are advised to use a unit organizer or conceptual map that lays out a picture of the big ideas in a unit and how they are connected to one another (S. Lynch, personal communication, March 1997). Dr. Lynch explains,



> *What can happen in science is, for example, if a teacher is doing a unit on sound, [s]he may look through the textbook and choose a series of experiments and other activities, and then perhaps [s]he brings in [a] guitar and from all of this creates a set of experiences. I call this the 'beads on a string' technique of teaching—all the activities are sort of related to sound. If a student is from a typical middle class background, you can give them a string of experiences, and they'll come out the other end learning something. However, kids that come from other cultures need to have more explicit instruction. Consequently, a unit organizer can be helpful for teachers to understand how you structure activities and tie them together, making connections and patterns.* (S. Lynch, personal communication, March 1997)

Teach the Language of Science

The national science standards underscore the idea that students who have learned to follow scientific practices and to assimilate scientific theories must also learn to communicate their understanding and findings to others (National Research Council, 1996). An essential aspect of instruction designed to achieve these standards is actively engaging students in scientific discussion by encouraging students to ask questions, propose answers, make predictions, and evaluate evidence. Facility with science terminology and the discourse patterns common to science is necessary if students are to engage in the level of discussion essential to scientific inquiry.

Research suggests that the kind of advanced reasoning used in scientific communication is dependent on the acquisition of specific linguistic structures of argumentation, including logical connectors and specialized vocabulary (e.g., Kessler et al., 1992). English language learners who have not yet acquired the linguistic structures necessary to scientific discourse may fall behind in both scientific reasoning and understanding.

Giving ELLs more opportunities for using the language of science can make science content more accessible by encouraging linguistic and cognitive development. Cognitively, patterns drawing on comparing and contrasting events, making cause and effect connections, and problem solving require higher-order thinking than the patterns of time order and list structure. Observing similarities and differences, noting cause and effect relationships, understanding the problem, and hypothesizing or offering a solution are thinking processes basic to scientific inquiry. The ability to engage in the thinking processes underlying science discourse patterns indicates high levels of both cognitive and linguistic functioning. This interlocking of cognitive and language development is central to second language learning in the context of science. One idea is for mainstream science teachers to identify linguistic structures or discourse patterns associated with a particular topic and then incorporate appropriate language learning activities into their science lessons. Kessler et al. (1992) describe a sample lesson (Vignette II) which combines a unit on electricity with the discourse function of agreeing and disagreeing.

II. Using Experiments to Teach Scientific Discourse

The teacher (and/or student) first models an experiment using balloons to demonstrate electrical attraction and resistance. The teacher (and/or student) also models expressions commonly used in scientific discourse for agreeing and disagreeing, along with associated linguistic structures. Students may then conduct their own experiments, carefully record their results, and share information about their observations orally or in writing (Kessler et al., 1992).

Make Oral and Written Language Comprehensible

Mainstream science teachers can make scientific language more comprehensible to their ELL students by modifying the way they speak. For example, it is often easier for ELLs to understand the active voice, for example, "Living things need nutrients" than the passive voice, "Nutrients are needed by living things." Limiting the number of new terms, paraphrasing or repeating difficult concepts, and using visual or real referents are other ways to make "teacher talk" more comprehensible to the English language learner.

Mainstream teachers can make science comprehensible to their English language learners by adding contextual and visual information to lessons and texts.

Asking questions is another effective strategy. Questions of varied linguistic and cognitive complexity are useful in encouraging critical thinking and finding out what students know. Moreover, teacher questioning in the science classroom serves as a model for student questioning and supports the development of inquiry skills.

Focusing on what is right about a student's response rather than what is wrong is also important. For instance, in answer to the teacher's question, "What are some foods that contain protein?" an English language learner might respond, "Some food are eggs, milks, meats." Instead of overtly correcting the student, the teacher can model correct language indirectly by stating, "Yes, some foods that contain protein are eggs, milk, and meat" (Fathman et al., 1992).

Making science information accessible to English language learners often requires modifying written materials. For the most part, teachers can modify written text in the same way that they adjust their speech: by limiting the number of new vocabulary words, simplifying grammatical structures, and using the active voice. Clear organization and the use of guideposts, such as "first" and "next" to indicate sequence and "but" to indicate contrast, are other ways to help ELLs access meaning from written works.

Bringing scientific texts within reach of the ELL student, though, is more than simplifying vocabulary and reorganizing sentences. Some materials may require more context or background information in order to make sense to ELL students. Research suggests (Short, 1992; among others) that teachers need to consider students' proficiency level(s), prior knowledge of the topic, and the text itself, when adapting written materials.

Successful adaptation includes adding contextual and visual information such as charts, graphs, outlines, and pictures. A flowchart, for example, can convey a scientific process to students more rapidly than several paragraphs of text filled with complex structures and difficult vocabulary. Timelines and charts are useful in developing higher-order thinking skills such as sequencing and comparison/contrast. All of these visual formats emphasize essential points and reduce extraneous information (Short, 1992). (See "Adapting Materials" Chapter 3, page 63.)

Teach Problem Solving and Learning Strategies

Help English language learners acquire strategies that facilitate both second language acquisition and knowledge acquisition.

The approaches described above—developing a manageable curriculum, applying the inquiry process, making language comprehensible—are all critical in helping ELLs reach the national standards for science. Equally important is to teach them the specific strategies they need to facilitate both second language acquisition and knowledge acquisition (August & Pease-Alvarez, 1996). An essential task for teachers is to show students strategies that work and then to provide opportunities for them to practice using their strategies in pursuing academic learning (Padron & Waxman, 1993). Vignette III illustrates how one teacher incorporated the explicit use of problem solving and learning strategies into a series of science experiments.

An approach to teaching learning strategies that was developed specifically for English language learners is the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). (See "Learning Strategies Across the Curriculum" Chapter 3, page 74.) The CALLA helps students use their prior content knowledge as a tool in acquiring new knowledge and has been successful in improving student learning in science as well as in other academic subjects. One of the premises of the CALLA is that students come to science classes with naive theories of heat, energy, and other concepts that are either inconsistent or incompatible with current scientific knowledge. If lessons designed to teach new concepts do not account for this existing knowledge, it is highly likely that students will ignore or misinterpret what is taught. This tendency is even more likely to occur when instruction is given in a language students are still learning (Gelman, 1995). Introducing new concepts through brainstorming or discussion sessions can highlight student misperceptions about science and help students understand that intuitive knowledge may not always be relied upon in science (Chamot, 1994; S. Lynch, personal communication, March 1997).

III. Demonstrating Learning Strategies in Science

The instructor returned all of the student worksheets (he had been keeping the students' work in individual student portfolios) and asked them to complete checklists and evaluation forms that covered four experiments. When they were finished, he conducted individual interviews with each student asking them to refer to their portfolios to clarify the checklists and evaluation forms. The interviews focused upon student perceptions of their learning both in terms of what they had learned and what they had learned how to do. The instructor was able to introduce learning strategy terminology by simply asking questions such as: "What resources did you use?" "What can you infer from this experiment?" and "What words or information did you have to pay attention to [in order] to do the experiment?" This provided a vehicle for the instructor to integrate learning strategy instruction with content and language learning rather than isolating the learning strategy instruction and making it an end in itself (Spanos, 1993).

Teachers can also use "think-aloud" or "scaffolding" techniques to coach their students in appropriate problem-solving strategies (Chamot, 1993). After completing an experiment or research study, for example, teachers can "scaffold the reasoning process" by taking a sample of data and saying, "Well, I can see that as this [variable] is decreasing, this [variable] is increasing. What might that mean?" to guide the students from raw data, to wondering how the data fit together, to hypothesizing (S. Lynch, personal communication, March 1997).

Developing the Scientific World View

Science is a way of knowing that "distinguishes itself from other ways of knowing and from other bodies of knowledge" (National Research Council, 1996). The nature of science in the standards documents is defined according to a traditional seeking to understand how the world works (i.e. describe, explain, predict, and control natural phenomena). National Science Education Standards (NRC, 1996) clarifies the scientific world view as opposed to alternative views: "Explanations on how the natural world changes based on myths, personal beliefs, religious values, mystical inspiration, superstition, or authority may be personally useful and socially relevant, but they are not scientific."

Although the distinction between the scientific world view and alternative views may be relatively straightforward to educated Westerners, children's world views involve a complex interaction of personal beliefs and scientific understanding (Loving, 1997). In addition, different cultural groups hold diverse and sometimes opposing views about the social and natural world (Cobern, 1991). Some groups tend to have mechanistic, instrumental views that seek to explain or control natural phenomena, whereas others express alternative views in which personal, social, and supernatural forces interact with natural phenomena. For example, in explaining the cause of a major hurricane they had personally experienced, mainstream students often interpreted the phenomenon as a natural event, whereas culturally diverse students expressed world views in which people and society (e.g., social ills of crime and violence), nature, and supernatural forces (e.g., God and devils) were all responsible (Lee, 1996). Because world views are shared belief systems in children's sociocultural environments, the scientific world view presents a challenging "border crossing" for diverse students.

The emphasis on inquiry poses challenges for many ESL students. Students from oral language traditions may have difficulty using language functions such as reflecting, predicting, inferencing, and hypothesizing (Casteel & Isom, 1994). Because of limited formal schooling and/or the oral language traditions in the home, newly arrived students may experience difficulties with scientific inquiry in school because they have not been encouraged to ask questions or devise plans for investigation on their own. Students from cultures that respect authority may be receptive to teachers telling and directing them, rather than making an effort to inquire, explore, and seek alternative ways.

Instructional Strategies for Science Teachers

1. Give practice in reading cause and effect relationships and the language signals that show them. For example, "if" and result clauses, conditional statements, and action-reaction expressions.
2. Teach the many forms of graphs used in science. Have students draw them, label their parts, and interpret them.
3. Use real materials, objects, and apparatus to demonstrate concepts or principles. Accompany demonstrations with simple language followed by written charts that summarize each step.
4. Teach the steps to problem solving, and provide the vocabulary to identify each step. The steps are as follows:

   a) Identify the problem
   b) Define or delimit the problem
   c) Gather data
   d) Sift data
   e) Suggest theories or make hypothesis
   f) Draw conclusions

   Give practice in both skills of problem solving and the language which explains the process.
5. Develop the skill of finding facts and noting details by asking students to list all the information in a given paragraph.
6. Ask students to keep written records of scientific events, for example, a chronicle of space flights, a diary of the Sealab experiments, a progress report of plant growth.
7. Point out words that have special meanings in science and other meanings in different contexts. Such words are "test" meaning *prove* and "test" meaning *trial.*
8. Help students to acquire a vocabulary of expressions that provide clues to likenesses and differences. Science reading demands the ability to distinguish small details that may denote important similarities and differences. Word lists may include the following: same, alike, congruent, duplicate, resemble, agree, parallel, copy, match, double, affinity, alien, atypical, diverse, disparate, unlike, unrelated, etc. Use in spoken context, find in written material, and use in science lessons.
9. Provide selections that include several causes and effects. Help students identify causes, find their effects, and relate them to one another. For example, "A careless camper who does not put out his campfire and acres of valuable timber burned; or, a year of little or no rain and poor crops, dry wells, and a shortage of irrigation water.

Excerpted from Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers *by E. Thonis*

Use Appropriate Assessment

More and more often, school districts committed to meeting the needs of diverse learners are combining hands-on, student-focused instruction with hands-on, student-focused assessment—assessment that requires students to perform authentic academic tasks similar to those originally used to teach the material. *The Guide to Performance Assessment for Linguistically Diverse Students* (Navarrete & Gustkee, 1996, available online at www.ncbe.gwu.edu), for one, asks local schools and districts to use alternative assessment tasks to measure student progress, such as student work on a science exhibit or lab report. The *Guide* also advocates assessment procedures that match classroom instructional practices and add context to assessment tasks, such as cooperative small groups, individual conferences, visual prompts, and assessment in the language of instruction. In addition, the following techniques are suggested:

- Allow extra time to complete or respond to assessment tasks.
- Permit students to use dictionaries or word lists.
- Simplify directions in English or paraphrase in the student's native language.

Many of the attributes of effective assessment listed in the *Guide* are reflected in the findings of August and Pease-Alvarez (1996). Their study of instructional services for English language learners indicates that a good assessment plan uses a diversity of standard and alternative measures that are adapted to individual needs and educational experiences. Using a variety of measures—such as observation checklists, interview guides, criterion-referenced tests, and portfolios—provides a more complete picture of a student's proficiency and progress.

Like the *Guide*, August and Pease-Alvarez also suggest using the student's native language to facilitate assessment of content knowledge, particularly when students have learned a particular concept or skill in that language. Without such assessment, they argue that a student's academic achievement is likely to be underestimated.

Insect-Eating Plants Matrix

	Venus Fly Trap	Pitcher Plant	Sundew
Location	Costal marshes, N and S America	Various parts of U.S.–bogs/marshes	No description
General Appearance	Small, 12 leaves in circle on ground, stem with blossoms	Author does not describe	Very small, size of button/pincushion
Catch/Lure Mechanism	Outer ends of leaves hinged w/spines on edges; secretes sweet liquid	Horn-shaped leaves; glands secrete sweet material	Red leaves like spoons covered with hairs like flypaper
Catch/Lure Process	Insect presses trigger hairs Red center of leaf secretes liquid Hinge closes/traps bug Digestive juice dissolves bug	Insects go for material Get caught in neck hairs Struggle/slip Drug makes bug unconscious	Bug sticks on hairs Struggle/get stuck Hairs bend to pin bug Digested–how?

Notes:

- The matrix format makes it visually clear how many things are being compared and how many categories of information are discussed by the author.
- It is also evident at a glance what information is missing; for example, the author does not really describe the general appearance of the pitcher plant, nor is it clear how the sundew plant digests the insects.
- Parallel information to be analyzed is physically adjacent in the various cells and rows, facilitating analysis. In this particular matrix, it is likely that the reader might have drawn different conclusions about the similarities and differences among the plants had the information been diagrammed in a semantic map because the relevant information would not have been parallel and easy to read.

Excerpted from Teaching Reading as Thinking (Facilitator's Manual), *Alexandria, VA: ASCD and NCREL, 1986*

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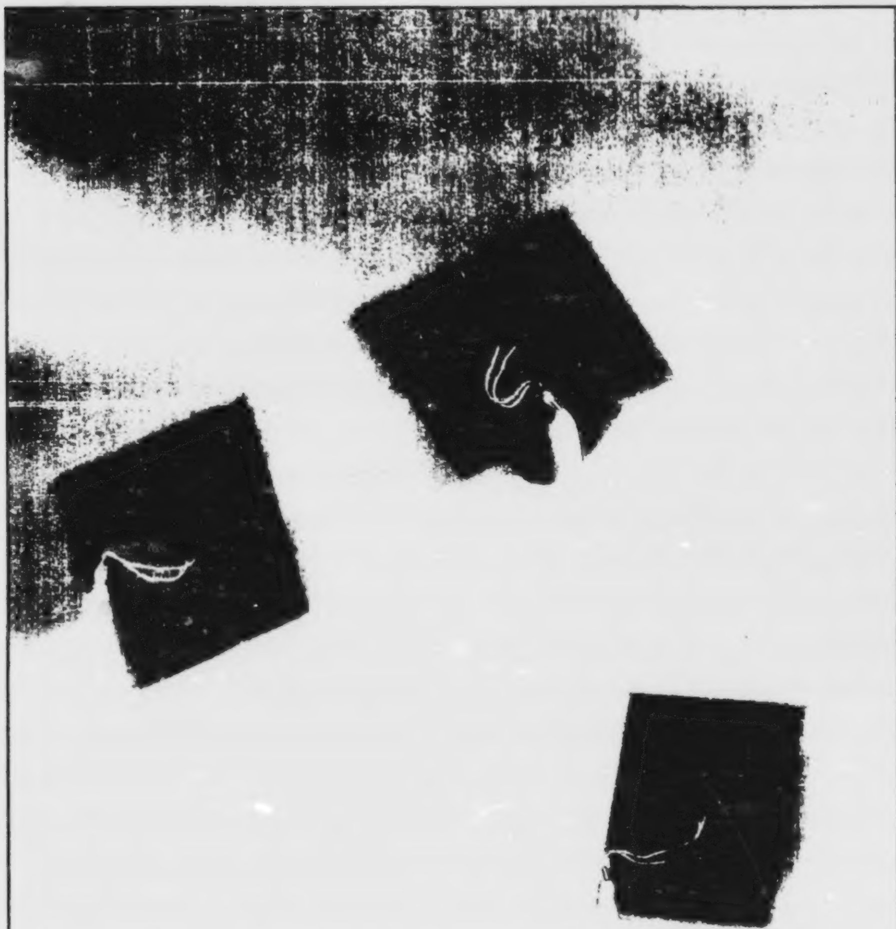
Chapter 8 At-a-Glance

Chapter 8 contains suggestions on how you as classroom teachers can—with or without the assistance of an ESL teacher—assess students' progress in your classroom. It is important to stress that every student—regardless of the limited nature of his or her proficiency in English—must be held accountable for at least some of the content of your lesson. Every day and every lesson counts as students work to meet the dual challenge of mastering English and standards-based content.

Highlights of this chapter include

- Adapting content assessment for LEP students
- Using performance-based and portfolio assessments
- Grading LEP students
- Accommodating LEP students on standardized tests

This chapter contains an excerpt from a comprehensive article by Deborah Short entitled "Assessing Integrated Language and Content Instruction" (*TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 27, No. 4, 1993), which begins on page 158. It is very detailed, but if you stick with it, you will find many practical ideas for how to assess your language-minority students. The entire article and other related articles can be accessed at www.ncbe.gwu.edu.



Let us focus on our students' strengths and give them opportunities to demonstrate ability, skill, and knowledge through the medium that suits them best, whether oral or written or even, in the case of beginner students, pictorial.

—Deborah Short

CHAPTER 8:
Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?

1. Assessment and Instruction

Classroom-based assessment informs teachers about student progress; this type of authentic assessment can be so integrated into instruction that similar activities serve as both instruction and assessment. Building multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge into instruction also automatically builds in assessment of student progress precisely connected to curriculum. This type of assessment provides important feedback on instruction, allowing teachers to adjust to meet the needs of all students. In addition, multiple types of assessment should include standardized measures to demonstrate that language-minority students are attaining district, state, or federal standards for academic achievement.

Adapting Content Assessment for LEP Students

It is important to remember that students who are still in the process of learning English must be supported in learning grade-level academic content. They should be challenged to exercise critical thinking skills, such as analysis or synthesis, during all stages of language acquisition, even while they are in the beginning stage.

At the same time, understanding of academic subjects must be assessed in a way that allows students to demonstrate their knowledge somewhat independently of their fluency in English. Three techniques for assessing content while reducing language difficulties are scaffolding, differentiated scoring, and visible criteria (O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996).

Scaffolding assessment allows students various ways to demonstrate their knowledge: exhibits or projects, graphic organizers (diagrams or semantic maps), organized lists of concepts, labeled tables or graphs completed by the students, or short answers. Students should be allowed extended time limits for completing scaffolded assessments.

A second method for assessment is **differentiated scoring**, that is, scoring students separately on content knowledge and on language. This also integrates assessment of language arts in other content areas. Students might be scored on sentence structure and the use of key vocabulary from the lesson. In addition, they would be scored on how well they understood key concepts, how accurate their answers were, and how well they demonstrated the processes they used to derive their answers.

A third method for adapting assessment is to use **visible or explicit criteria** for scoring. Students become familiar with scoring criteria before the actual assessment is given, especially if they will be scored separately on content knowledge and language conventions (differentiated scoring). Students might be involved in creating criteria for a good science report or steps in solving a word problem. They should practice applying these criteria to actual examples in order to become familiar with the criteria.

Specific Ways You Can Hold Your ELL Students Accountable for Lesson Content

Level 1: Novice Students

(Up to six months in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

Assessment Modifications

All Students

______ Have student point to the picture of a correct answer (limit choices)

______ Have student circle a correct answer (limit choices)

______ Instruct student to draw a picture illustrating a concept

______ Instruct student to match items

______ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises with the word list provided

______ Reduce choices on multiple-choice tests

______ Give open-book tests (provide page and paragraph where answer can be found)

______ Test student orally in English or the native language

Students with grade-level literacy in their native language
(if bilingual person is available)

______ Instruct student to write what he or she has learned in the native language

Level 2: Beginning Student

(Up to two years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

Assessment Modifications

All Students

______ Instruct student to match items

______ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises with the word list provided

______ Give open-book tests

______ Ask student to retell/restate (orally and in writing)

______ Instruct student to define/explain/summarize orally in English or the native language

______ Have student compare and contrast (orally and in writing)

______ Use cloze procedure with outlines, charts, time lines, etc.

Students with adequate literacy in their native language (if bilingual person is available)

______ Instruct student to write what he or she has learned in the native language

Level 3: Intermediate Students

(Up to five years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

Assessment Modifications

All Students

______ Instruct student to explain how an answer was achieved (orally and in writing)

______ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises

______ Ask student to retell/restate (orally and in writing)

______ Instruct student to define/explain/summarize (orally and in writing)

______ Have student compare and contrast (orally and in writing)

______ Use cloze procedure with outlines, charts, time lines, etc.

______ Have student analyze and explain data (orally and in writing)

______ Instruct student to express opinions and judgments (orally and in writing)

______ Have student write essays

2. Performance-Based and Portfolio Assessment Definition of Terms

Informal or Alternative Assessment

These are not technical terms, so there are no uniformly accepted definitions. *Informal* and *alternative assessment* are used interchangeably and indicate the following: any method, other than a standardized test, of determining what a student knows or can do; activities that reflect tasks typical of classroom instruction and real-life settings and that represent actual progress toward curricular goals and objectives; and activities that are monitored and recorded in some way, either by teacher observation, peer observation, or student self-assessment.

It should also be noted that informal and alternative assessment measures are by definition criterion-referenced (for example, learners are classified according to whether or not they are able to successfully perform a set of tasks or meet a set of objectives). Norm-referenced tests, on the other hand, relate one learner's performance against the normative performance of a group. Standardized tests can be either norm- or criterion-referenced.

Performance-based assessment is a type of informal or alternative assessment and is characterized by activities that are specifically designed to assess performance on one or more instructional tasks: activities in which students demonstrate specific skills and competencies are rated on a predetermined scale of achievement or proficiency, and activities that are rated by a teacher or other professional, rather than by peer or self-evaluation.

Portfolio assessment is a technique for qualitative evaluation. It is characterized by the maintenance of descriptive records of a variety of student work over time, the purposeful and systematic collection of student work that reflects growth toward the achievement of specific curricular objectives, and the inclusion of student self-evaluation as well as teacher evaluation.

Portfolio assessment in ESL has been used mainly to follow progress in reading and writing. Portfolios can, but need not necessarily, contain samples of student writing, records of oral language progress, records on reading achievement over time, and information on the results of formal achievement tests.

Project Rubric

Score	Creativity	Understanding	Appearance	Responsibility
3	Project has many details that show imagination	Details show true facts of Native American life	Project is neat and colorful	Turned in on time
2	Project has a few details that show imagination	Some details were not part of Native American life	Neat but needs more color	Project is one day late
1	Project completed quickly with no details	Details were not part of Native American life	Project is messy	Project is two or more days late

Scoring:

12 = A+

11 = A

10 = B+

9 = B

8 = C+

7 = C

6 = D+

5 = D

4 = E

Story Retelling Checklist: Self-Assessment

Name ______________________ **Date** ______________________

Story title ______________________ **Author** ______________________

Please put an "X" in the box that describes your ability to do the following:

	On my own	With help from a classmate or the teacher	I cannot do this yet
I can name the main characters.			
I can describe the setting.			
I can report the events in chronological order.			
I can identify the main issues or problems.			
I can describe the resolution.			
I can express my feelings about the story and compare it to another story or event in my life.			
I can identify my favorite part of the story or my favorite character and tell why.			

Portfolio Assessment in the Foreign Language Classroom

3. Types of Language Performance-Based Assessment

Performance-based assessment should not be limited to a single activity type. In fact, using performance-based tasks gives teachers the freedom to probe with language that formal measures often lack. Whatever activity type is used, never assess more than three items at a time. For instance, a role-play might be designed to see if students can respond to "what" and "where" questions; ask for or respond to clarification; and read addresses or telephone numbers. Any more detail would be difficult for beginning students to integrate and even more difficult for teachers to rate.

Activities should be as authentic and as integrated as possible. If reading or writing would be a natural occurrence within a given context that is mainly geared to oral communication, then it should be part of the assessment. Whether oral or literacy activities are being devised, the key to successful performance-based assessment is the creation of activities that do not rely on language beyond the student's capability.

The activity types listed below are all designed for teacher-student, student-student, triad, or group settings. They concentrate more on oral communication and/or reading than on writing. (The portfolio activities will concentrate on writing.) Activities that pair students or use group interaction are the most numerous. They are often more natural than teacher-student interaction, save classroom time, and give the teacher the ability to listen and watch more closely while acting as rater for one or more students. Oral activity types include the following:

- Role play
- Student-student description, using picture or written prompts
- Oral reporting to whole class
- Telling a picture story, using a sequence of three or more pictures
- Interviews, using written prompts
- Completing the dialog/conversation, using written prompts
- Debates, either one-on-one or small group, with turn-taking
- Brainstorming
- Passing the message on among three to six students
- Giving instructions from picture, diagram, or written prompts
- Completing incomplete stories
- Games

Features of Portfolio Assessments

Portfolios are files that contain a variety of information assessing student performance relative to instructional objectives. They are a practical way of assessing student work throughout the entire course. Portfolios can include samples of student work, such as stories, completed forms, exercise sheets, pictures drawn and captioned by students, or other written work; tapes of oral work, such as role play or presentations; teacher descriptions of student accomplishments, such as performance on oral tasks; formal test data; and checklists and rating sheets such as those at the end of this section. Like performance-based assessment, portfolios encourage teachers to use a variety of ways to evaluate learning and to do so over time. These multiple indicators of student performance are a better cross-check for student progress than one type of measure alone.

While it is each student's responsibility to put his/her "best work" in the portfolio file, it is the teacher's responsibility to choose the categories of work that should be placed in the file (for example, a written story about people; a description of surroundings; a tape of an oral account of a trip). Student work should be collected with a purpose, and each item a student places in the file should reflect progress toward a particular learning goal. In addition, teachers need to maintain checklists or summary sheets of tasks and performances in the student's portfolio to help them look systematically across students, to make instructional decisions, and to report consistently and reliably.

Portfolios may be particularly appropriate for use with highly mobile migrant students in addition to LEP students for the following reasons:

- For students moving from one teacher or school to another, portfolios can pass along critical information on their strengths and needs so that the new teacher does not duplicate assessments that have already been conducted.
- For students being considered for placement at different levels within an ESL or bilingual education program, portfolio results can determine their ability to function at various levels.
- For students being considered for transition from an ESL or bilingual education program to a mainstream, English-only program, portfolio results can measure performance relative to classmates in the mainstream.
- For students being considered for prereferral to special education programs, portfolio results can be used to determine whether performance is related to language proficiency, including both native language and English literacy skills.

Sample of Rubric for Rating Writing Samples Rating Criteria

5

- Vocabulary is precise, varied, and vivid.
- Organization is appropriate to writing assignment and contains clear introduction, development of ideas, and conclusion.
- Transition from one idea to another is smooth and provides the reader with clear understanding that the topic is changing.
- Meaning is conveyed effectively.
- A few mechanical errors may be present but do not disrupt communication.

4

- Shows a clear understanding of writing and topic development.
- Vocabulary is adequate for grade levels.
- Events are organized logically, but some part of the sample may not be fully developed.
- Some transition of ideas is evident.
- Meaning is conveyed but breaks down at times.
- Shows a good understanding of writing and topic development.

3

- Vocabulary is simple.
- Organization may be extremely simple or there may be evidence of disorganization.
- There are a few transitional markers or repetitive transitional markers.
- Meaning is frequently clear.
- Mechanical errors affect communication.
- Shows some understanding of writing and topic development.

2

- Vocabulary is limited and repetitious.
- The sample is composed of only a few disjointed sentences.
- There are no transitional markers.
- The meaning is unclear.
- Mechanical errors cause serious disruption in communication.
- It shows little evidence of discourse understanding.

1

- Responds with a few isolated words.
- No complete sentences are written.
- There is no evidence of concepts of writing.

0

- There is no response.

Figure 8-1.
Sample Holistic Criteria

Source: S.S. Moya, Evaluation Assistance Center (EAC)—East, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., 1990.

Sample Assessment Instrument for Content-Specific Language Functions

Listening: The student is able to

1. Understand explanations without concrete referents:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
2. Follow directions for experiments:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
3. Understand oral numbers:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
4. Understand oral word problems:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time

Speaking: The student is able to

1. Answer questions:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
2. Ask for clarification:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
3. Participate in discussions:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
4. Explain and demonstrate a process:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
5. Present oral reports:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
6. Explain how an answer was derived:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time

Reading: The student is able to

1. Understand specialized vocabulary:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
2. Understand information/explanations in textbooks:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time
3. Find information from graphs, charts, and tables:
   ○ Not at all ○ some of the time ○ very well most of the time

4. Follow directions for experiments:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
5. Find information in reference materials:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
6. Read at varied rates (skimming and scanning):
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
7. Read mathematical notations and equations:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
8. Understand written word problems:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time

Writing: The student is able to

1. Write answers to questions:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
2. Note observations:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
3. Describe experiments:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
4. Write reports:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
5. Label maps, graphs, and charts:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time
6. Write verbal input numerically:
Not at all some of the time very well most of the time

Excerpted from Helping Language-Minority Students after They Exit from Bilingual/ESL Programs *by Else V. Hamayan & Ron Perlman*

Using Portfolio Results

Portfolio results can be used in a variety of ways. The Sample Portfolio Analysis Form shown in Figure 8-2 is an essential component in many of these uses:

- **Diagnosis and placement**—Student strengths and needs are examined with regard to major curriculum objectives.
- **Monitoring student progress**—Growth in learning over the course of the semester or school year can be monitored.
- **Feedback on the effectiveness of instruction**—If individual students are not progressing, the instructional approach should be re-evaluated and appropriate adaptations made to meet each student's needs. One possible conclusion is that a student needs instructional support beyond the services provided by the classroom(s) in which the portfolio has been maintained.
- **Communication with other teachers**—This includes other members of the portfolio team (especially ESL/bilingual teachers) and those at other schools to which students may transfer.
- **Student feedback**—Portfolios enable students to comment and reflect on their progress and to plan what they would do to improve.

Sample Portfolio Analysis Form

DATE: 5/1/00

STUDENT: Marisel, A.

TEACHER: Jones

GRADE: 8

EDUCATIONAL GOAL: Student demonstrates ability on variety of writing tasks

PERFORMANCE TASK CONTENTS: ILLUSTRATING STUDENT PROGRESS DATE:

- Demonstrates interest and ability Literacy Development Checklist 3/20/00 in variety of writing
- Writes a short story Writing Sample: My Parents' Story 4/22/00
- Writes to communicate with others Letter 4/10/00 Dialogue Journal 3/31/00
- Expresses writing preferences Self-Assessment of Writing 4/24/00
- Shares writing with others Anecdotal record 4/06/00

Summary Comments:

Figure 8-2

Reading/Writing Portfolios: Sample Contents

Arlington County Public Schools, Virginia, Elementary ESOL HILT Program

Reading

- Teacher observation log
- Examples of what student can read
- Books/materials read
- Audiotape of student reading
- Test results, formal and informal
- Conferencing forms
- Examples of skills mastered

Writing

- First piece of writing each year
- Learning log, dialogue journal
- January and May writing samples
- Drafts and final products from different genres (personal narratives, exposition, letters, poems, essays, reports)
- Graphics (illustrations, diagrams)

Stratham Memorial Elementary School, New Hampshire, Reading/Writing Portfolio

Reading

- Favorite books/authors list
- Genre graph, indicating type of literature preferred
- Journal entries
- List of completed books

Writing

- Writing sample and cover sheet
- List of completed pieces
- Evaluation
- Goals and/or self-evaluation
- Annual narrative summary by student

Orange County Publc Schools, Florida, Literacy Portfolio Components

Core Elements

- Reading development checklist
- Three writing samples
- List of books read independently

Optional

- Student self-assessment
- Audiotapes of student reading
- "Things I Can Do" list
- Test results, formal and informal
- Reading comprehension tests
- Teacher observations and anecdotal records

Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia, ESL Program

Core Elements

- Two writing samples
- Two oral production samples
- Informal reading assessment
- List of books to read
- Results of Degrees of Reading Power (DRP) test, Grades 7–12

Optional Elements

- Dialogue journal excerpts
- Teacher observations
- Reading/writing checklists
- Student self-assessment
- Audio/videotapes
- Student-selected work

Figure 8-3

4. Grading

Report card grades are an important part of the communication among teachers, students, and parents (Stiggins, 1988). Grades have two basic purposes in the classroom: to reflect student accomplishments and to motivate students. While grades may indicate the level or rank order of student performance, experts question their success in serving as an incentive for students to exert greater effort. Teachers often comment that not all students see grades as motivating (Stiggins, Frisbie, & Griswald, 1989). Grades are extrinsic motivation not derived from self-determined criteria, as in learning out of interest and self-created goals. Moreover, as Kohn (1994) notes, people who are promised extrinsic rewards for an activity "tend to lose interest in whatever they had to do to obtain the reward." Wiggins (1993) indicates that grades can be a disincentive to some students because, particularly when teachers grade on a curve, somebody always loses, and a portion of the class is made to feel inept.

Despite the problems we have identified with grading practices, our experience leads us to believe that grades can be useful if they are based on authentic assessments and are assigned following certain guidelines. Grades are requested regularly by parents as a guide to their child's performance and are useful as an overall indicator of student achievement. When combined with illustrative samples of student work and with informative scoring rubrics, grades can provide parents and other teachers with a comprehensive picture of student growth and achievement. Part of the usefulness of grades depends, however, on establishing relatively uniform criteria for grades in a school or among classrooms.

The introduction of authentic assessment (including portfolios) to accompany more innovative forms of instruction expands considerably the alternatives that can be used to establish classroom grades. Teachers using authentic assessments evaluate students on samples of classroom performance that may include reports, projects, and/or group work. In authentic assessment, student performance is often rated using scoring rubrics that define the knowledge students possess, how they think, and how they apply their knowledge. Because the rubrics are specific (or at least should be) their use tends to reduce teacher-to-teacher variations in grading, especially if the teachers base their ratings on a common set of anchor papers. With the use of portfolios, teachers can provide parents with specific examples of student work to illustrate the ratings they give to students on the scoring rubrics. Furthermore, with authentic assessment, teachers often establish standards of performance that reflect what students should know or be able to do at different levels of performance that may also reflect different levels of mastery. Finally, teachers using authentic assessment share the criteria for scoring student work openly and invite discussions of the criteria with students and parents.

With these new opportunities comes a challenge: to define the procedures by which scoring rubrics and rating scales are converted to classroom grades. In rating individual pieces of student work, one option is to directly convert rubrics on a 1–4 scale to corresponding letter grades. This could work acceptably provided that the points on the rubric represent what you consider to be "A-level" performance, "B-level" performance, and so on. While this may be effective in some cases, it is not always a good practice because definitions of what students know and can do at the different levels on the rubric do not always correspond to what is considered to be A or B performance. Further, it may be unwise to confuse the informed feedback provided by a scoring rubric with the external reward of a grade (Kohn, 1994). Thus, a second option is to establish independent standards of performance corresponding to letter grades. That is, identify in advance exactly what students receiving an A, B, etc. are expected to know and do in meeting the course objectives. Then obtain a student grade by comparing the student's actual performance with the established standard. The standard corresponding to grades can reflect overall student performance across activities or projects, thereby avoiding the difficulty of having to create standards for grades on each student product. The score on a rubric for each activity provides effective, informed feedback to students on their work, and the standard provides them with direction on what they need to accomplish.

Our recommendations in grading and communicating student performance with authentic assessment are as follows:

- Assign scores to individual student achievement or growth based on a scoring rubric or an agreed-on standard to reflect mastery of classroom objectives.
- Assign weights to different aspects of student performance as reflected in class assignments (e.g., projects, reports, and class participation).
- Reach agreement with other teachers and with students on the interpretation of the summed score with respect to grades.
- Do not assign grades for effort, and especially do not combine effort and achievement in a single grade.
- If you assign grades for group work, assign separate grades for the group product and for individual contributions.

In using anecdotal records to support grades:

- Use the language of the rubric to help you write anecdotal comments, describing specifically what each student should know and be able to do, and use examples to communicate.
- Link your comments to instructional goals, and (where appropriate) distinguish between language proficiency and content-area knowledge and skills.
- In expressing concerns, focus on (1) what the student knows and can do and (2) your plan or strategies for helping the student improve.
- Discuss growth over time in addition to current performance.
- Use anecdotal comments to provide feedback on group work and group participation.
- Use enclosures: a one-page class or course overview, samples of the student's work, the student's self-evaluation, a letter from you, etc.

We believe that teachers should explore alternative forms of assessment and grading that are adapted to their instructional methods and to the scoring rubrics they use in evaluating student performance. In one such approach (Brodhagen, 1994), a grade-level middle school teacher attempted to accomplish three goals: to establish a grading system that was consistent with an integrative (thematic) curriculum, to involve students in the design of classroom assessment and grading, and to avoid the stigma attached to grades of D and F by giving students opportunities to improve their work. She and a cooperating teacher agreed to assign only grades of A, B, C, or I (Incomplete) and graded only if the student turned in 80 percent of required work because anything less would be insufficient to grade. Students were involved in the assessment of their own learning and also in the design of this system. Students selected five or six pieces from a portfolio to represent their "best work," wrote a self-evaluation of the quarter's work, and wrote goals for the next quarter. The teacher used all of this information in a quarterly parent-teacher-student conference with considerable success and a high degree of student participation.

5. Assessing Integrated Language and Content Instruction

Integrated language and content instruction has become a popular alternative to traditional ESL instruction. Researchers have recommended this instructional approach to develop students' academic language ability and facilitate their transition to mainstream classes. Practitioners have also favored this approach for several reasons: to prepare students for mainstream classes, increase student motivation and interest with content themes, and make ESL students feel part of the mainstream school curricula. Over the past ten years, much progress has been made in developing, implementing, and refining strategies and techniques that effectively integrate language and content instruction. However, the issue of assessment is still being resolved. Neither traditional language tests nor content achievement tests are adequate. The difficulty with assessment centers on isolating the language features from the content objectives so that one does not adversely influence the other.

How to teach academic content has been the first barrier to cross in order to improve educational practice for language-minority students, but a second remains—how to assess student comprehension of subject matter and student language skill development. Students and teachers realize that most assessment instruments actually test both content concepts and language ability, particularly reading comprehension and writing. Because language and content are intricately intertwined, it is difficult to isolate one feature from the other in the assessment process. Thus, teachers may not be sure whether a student is simply unable to demonstrate knowledge because of a language barrier or whether, indeed, the student does not know the content material being assessed. Yet, a distinction needs to be drawn, especially if a student is not succeeding in a course.

6. Assessment Reform

At present, assessment dominates the educational reform dialogue. Inadequacies in current practices have led many educators and observers of educational progress in the U.S. to call for changes in assessment procedures. (See, e.g., Linn & Baker, 1992; NCEST, 1992; NCRMSE, 1991.) The emphasis on assessment reform comes from many fronts: teachers, administrators, government officials and politicians, researchers, education consultants, and business leaders. At the local level, it is tied to accountability, program evaluation, programmatic support, community support, student achievement, student promotion, and credibility. Beyond the school district boundaries, it is linked to college entrance requirements, the national standards movement, and workplace skills. It affects teacher and administrator careers, public funding of programs, school choice, and more.

There are several reasons to assess student learning in the classroom: to place students in classes, to measure student progress and achievement, to guide and improve instruction, and to diagnose student knowledge of a topic before it is taught. Such assessment must be carried out carefully. Educators now acknowledge that standardized tests with short answer or multiple-choice items do not provide an accurate picture of student knowledge as a whole (Ascher, 1990; CCSSO, 1992; MSEB, 1991); therefore, it is inappropriate to base placement, achievement levels, and instructional plans solely on standardized test results. In addition, a task force commissioned by the National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing (NCRESST, 1992) has recognized that student diversity and educational equity play a role in test performance. In the monograph it is preparing, the task force plans to recommend nonstandardized, alternative assessment approaches for measuring student ability. Although school systems will continue to use standardized tests to measure and compare student progress, alternative assessment must also become part of the student evaluation package.

The demand for assessment alternatives to paper-and-pen multiple-choice tests has grown among language and content educators who want more accurate measures of their students' knowledge. For some educators, alternative measures may simply entail incorporating open-ended questions and essays into existing tests. For others, alternative assessment would be organized to permit students to demonstrate their knowledge and abilities over a long period of time, as through portfolios. Still others look at authentic assessment—requiring students to conduct tasks that mirror the use of the concept or operation or manipulative (for example, microscopes, geoboards, or fraction bars)—as the solution in the real world.

Assessing the Integration of Language and Content

The many varieties of alternative assessment include performance-based tests, portfolios, journals, projects, and observation checklists. Although these measures allow better demonstration of student knowledge, they can nonetheless confound teachers of language-minority students. Complications arise first because teachers must determine whether the language or the content is being assessed in these alternative measures. Then teachers must distinguish between the language and content knowledge of the students and decide if one is interfering with the demonstration of the other.

For instance, students who can solve math computation problems correctly and thereby demonstrate mastery of mathematical operations may be unable to solve a math word problem requiring the same computations if their English proficiency is not at a level capable of understanding the words and assumptions in the problem. Conversely, students who can write a well-constructed essay about their country's agricultural practices and thereby demonstrate mastery of paragraph development with topic sentences and supporting details may be unable to write an essay on the decline of the U.S. automobile industry if the topic, its relevant vocabulary, and notable people and events are unfamiliar.

Clearly, educators of language-minority students grapple with this dilemma every day. As a result, one strong recommendation has emerged: Objectives should be defined before designing or choosing any instructional procedure, ranging from a lesson plan to an exam. Although it is not uncommon to find teachers assigning two grades—one for form (for example, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, topic sentences) and one for content (for example, topical, accurate, interesting)—to a writing sample such as an essay, this practice does not work for all subject areas or testing situations. Instead, it is more advisable to focus on a single objective, whether it is content or language specific. Some assessment tools can be used exclusively for checking content comprehension, whereas others can be designated as language development measures. A word of caution is in order: even within a language assessment instrument, teachers must make a choice whether to measure fluency or accuracy.

A second recommendation from field experience concerns flexibility. School systems should include both formal and informal measures in their overall assessment plan and must support teachers who develop and implement a diverse repertoire of assessment tools. Although all students can benefit from a wide range of assessment procedures, variety is particularly important for language-minority students because they (a) are often unfamiliar with the type of standardized tests usually required in U.S. schools, (b) may have different learning and testing styles, and (c) may be unable to demonstrate the extent of their knowledge at a single sitting on one designated testing day. Further, particularly in the case of standardized tests, language-minority students should be given more time for completion because they must process both language and content information embedded in the test.

The remainder of this paper proposes an assessment framework with the underlying philosophy that alternative measures should be incorporated into lesson planning frequently and informally as a significant part of instruction. Successful implementation of the framework requires that (a) students be given frequent opportunities to demonstrate the growth of their knowledge base, (b) assessment tools be varied to meet individual learning styles, needs, and current skill levels, and (c) students be made aware of the assessment objectives in advance.

An Assessment Matrix

Overall, assessment should be viewed holistically but in an integrated language and content course. Where students are asked to demonstrate knowledge and ability in several areas, it is important to separate language issues from subject area concepts. The following matrix (Figure 8-4) is offered to language and content educators as a guide for selecting their assessment tool and for determining in advance their assessment objective: language or content. (Some of the categories have been derived from work conducted by the author and colleagues at the Center for Applied Linguistics, from Griffiths & Clyne, and from work by Kessler & Quinn, 1992.) This matrix examines what might be assessed and how the assessment might be done. It is a first step in distinguishing between these two categories of learning for a language-minority student.

The objectives of an integrated language and content course can be divided into the following categories: problem solving, content-area skills, concept comprehension, language use, communication skills, individual behavior, group behavior, and attitude. These areas can then be assessed through some of the following alternative measures: skill checklists and reading/writing inventories, anecdotal records and teacher observations, student self-evaluations, portfolios, performance-based tasks, essay writing, oral reports, and interviews.

Some overlap will occur between the language and content distinctions when some of the objectives, such as certain problem-solving activities, require that language (oral or written) be demonstrated. If students solve a mixture problem in algebra but are asked to explain and justify the steps taken, language is required to do so. They must recall the vocabulary terms, articulate coherent sentences, and make use of transition markers such as *then* and *next*. The overlap can be clarified, however, by varying the assessment alternatives and categorizing the objective areas for assessment—as the divisions in Figure 8-4 show. The key is to select the type or types of assessment carefully and to focus consistently on the objective. For instance, by looking at the process a student undertakes when solving a problem through anecdotal records kept during class, a teacher can note that the student made estimations before seeking a solution and checked the work before turning it in. When checking on language use, the teacher may have the student report orally on a solved problem and listen for appropriate use of technical terms.

The matrix also distinguishes between individual and group work. As indicated earlier, content and language teachers often engage students in cooperative activities, and this practice benefits language-minority students. However, all students must also be able to complete tasks individually. When language-minority students are placed in mainstream classes, they will be expected to work on group and individual assignments; thus, assessing their preparation in these areas is important.

The final category of the matrix considers student attitude toward content subjects. Determining a student's attitude toward a subject can be enlightening for a teacher in terms of selecting curricula and promoting student participation. There is ample anecdotal evidence that if students like a subject and/or recognize its importance, they will be motivated to work hard and perhaps be more successful in that course.

Figure 8-4: Integrated Language and Content Assessment: What and How

		HOW							
		Checklist, inventory	Anecdotal record, teacher observation	Student self-evaluation	Portfolios	Performance, manipulatives	Written essays, reports	Oral reports	Student interviews
WHAT	Problem solving								
	Content area skills								
	Concept comprehension								
	Language use								
	Communication skills								
	Individual behavior								
	Group behavior								
	Attitudes								

Assessment Activities

At this point, it may be useful to demonstrate the use of this matrix by describing some activities that might occur in several cells. For illustrative purposes, various subject areas and classes found in the U.S. school system are represented.

1. Problem Solving: Anecdotal Record

Objective: To determine if students make use of problem-solving techniques.

In an integrated language and mathematics class, the teacher has asked students to solve some word problems. As the teacher walks around the room, s/he notes that some of the students are drawing diagrams as they work out their solutions. The teacher records in a notebook students who try several diagrams, those who compare diagrams with others, and those who do not draw diagrams.

2. Problem Solving: Essays, Reports

Objective: To evaluate student ability to analyze and describe problem-solving processes.

Students are shown an algebraic word problem and two correct but different solutions written by other students. They are asked to write an essay describing the steps each student took to generate his or her solution to the problem. Then they are shown a third student's solution that resulted in an incorrect solution and are asked to explain where and how that student erred.

3 Problem Solving: Interview

Objective: To have students reflect metacognitively on steps taken to solve a health problem in an integrated language and health class, the teacher has set up the following scenario:

> *A village in India uses a common well as its source of drinking water. The water has become polluted, and villagers are getting sick. You students are the scientists given the task of determining the source of the pollution.*

The teacher allows students to discuss the problem in groups and then interviews several students individually. During the interview, the teacher asks the students what hypotheses they have generated, what steps they will take to solve the problem, and why they chose those steps.

4. Content Skills: Skills Checklist

Objective: To determine if students are able to use science equipment properly.

In the first quarter of the year, the physical science teacher introduces the class to various scientific instruments that will be used in experiments throughout the year. During this time, the teacher maintains a skills checklist for each student. (See Figure 8-5 for some sample items.) As the students use the equipment in class, the teacher records the date and his/her evaluation of the student's ability.

5. Content Skills: Student Self-Evaluation

Objective: To measure the ability to perform mathematical computations.

At the beginning of the school year, the teacher in an ESL math class decides to give students a checklist to report their computation skills. (See Figure 8-6 for some sample items.) The teacher plans to use this checklist as a diagnostic assessment tool along with other measures, such as a placement test, to guide whole class, small group, and individual instruction for the first quarter. To help some students, the teacher reads the checklist aloud as the students fill it out.

6. Concept Comprehension: Portfolios

Objective: To assess student knowledge of ways protest has influenced social change.

One objective of a U.S. history class is to recognize the role of protest in engendering change in society, such as legislation or revolution. In the third quarter of the year, the teacher asks students to prepare a portfolio that demonstrates their awareness of different types of protest and their subsequent results. Students are required to collect newspaper clippings of current events and comment on the protests described. They are encouraged to analyze the motives behind the protests and make predictions about resulting future change, drawing on historical comparisons.

Science Equipment Skills Checklist (Sàmple)

	Mastery of skill	Needs assistance	Unable to do
1. Read a graduated cylinder			9/16
2. Use a pipette			
3. Read a metric ruler	9/10		
4. Read a thermometer	9/13		9/10
5. Use a balance			

Figure 8-5

Student Self-Evaluation Checklist (Sample)

	Yes	No	Sometimes
I can add a column of four numbers.			
I can multiply two-digit numbers.			
I can divide by a three-digit number.			
I can add fractions.			
I can divide fractions.			
I can change a percent to a decimal.			

Figure 8-6

To accommodate different language abilities, the teacher allows the students to write their comments or record them on audiotape to include in the portfolio. At the end of the quarter, the teacher will review the portfolios, looking for student historical knowledge and conceptual comprehension.

7. Concept Comprehension: Performance

Objective: To measure student ability to distinguish between regular and irregular polygons.

In a geometry class, the teacher distributes paper, scissors, yarn, and several geoboards. Because the teacher wants to minimize the language barrier that might interfere with the students' performance, the teacher provides written and oral instructions for each task. Beginning with the paper and scissors, students are instructed to cut out geometric shapes, such as an isosceles triangle, an irregular pentagon, and a circle. Next, they are told to create a square, a rectangle, and an irregular six-sided figure with their geoboards and yarn. Scanning the room, the teacher can quickly assess the students' comprehension of these polygons.

8. Language Use: Checklist

Objective: To determine student familiarity with synonymous terms for mathematical operations.

The pre-algebra teacher has drawn up a checklist of terms that s/he would like the class to know for the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. To determine if they can link the terms to the symbols, the teacher designs a paired activity based on a technique in the Pre-Algebra Lexicon (Hayden & Cuevas, 1990). One partner receives a sheet with the operational symbols, the other the terms in verbal mathematical expressions (see Figure 8-7). The partner with the expressions reads them aloud. The other partner circles the correct symbol for the operation. In reviewing the worksheets, the teacher indicates on her checklist the terms students know and do not know.

9. Language Use: Oral Presentation

Objective: To measure student knowledge of key vocabulary terms, question formation, and sentence structure.

In an elementary-level family life course, students have been studying hygiene. Their assignment has been to interview family members and neighbors about their dental hygiene habits and prepare an oral presentation of their findings.

The teacher has encouraged them to prepare some charts or graphs to share. During the presentation, the students are expected to relate their interview questions, the subjects' responses, and their conclusions about dental hygiene habits. While they present, the teacher listens for key terms and grammatical questions and answers.

10. Communication: Portfolios

Objective: To evaluate student knowledge of genetics through several modes of communication.

The high school biology class began a unit on genetics recently. On the first day, the teacher distributes a K-W-L chart and had the students fill in the What I Know about Genetics and the What I Want to Learn sections. (The final section, What I Learned, will be part of a portfolio.) Based on what students put in their charts, the teacher generates a list of objectives for the portfolio. Three days later, the teacher explains the portfolio procedure that would be used over the next four weeks and the list of items to include. (See Figure 8-8.) The teacher explains that students should begin working on the items and emphasizes that the objective is to see if students can create a portfolio that communicates the knowledge they have acquired about genetics.

11. Communication: Written Essays

Objective: To determine student ability to write a persuasive letter about a community issue.

In a civics class, students read a hypothetical newspaper article about the county government's decision to allow a local developer to raze some old

Vocabulary in Mathematics Operations

Partner A: Read the Expressions to Your Partner	**Partner B: Circle the Symbol of the Operation You Hear**
Expression	**Operation**
1. Thirty minus eleven	+ - x /
2. Sixty-five times two	+ - x /
3. The quotient of sixty-four and eight	+ - x /
4. One less than ninety-six	+ - x /
5. Four increased by eighteen	+ - x /
6. One third of twenty-seven	+ - x /

Figure 8-7

Genetics Portfolio Assignment

A. For your Genetics Portfolio, please include the following six items:

1. Design a tree diagram tracing the genetic history of eye color in your family for three generations.
2. Write a prediction and explanation for your child's eye color if your spouse has gray eyes.
3. Explain the difference between fraternal and identical twins. Draw pictures to illustrate the difference.
4. Select one lab report from the genetics experiments we conduct in class. Explain how the experiment increased your knowledge of genetics.
5. Write a dialogue between two or three people discussing a genetic disease.
6. Complete the What I Learned section on your K-W-L chart for the genetics unit and include it in your portfolio.

B. Choose two additional items to show me what you know about genetics.

Figure 8-8

apartment buildings and build expensive, single family homes and a small shopping center.

The article explains that the low-income building housed poor families but was in disrepair. Students are then instructed to take a position for or against the development plan and write a letter to the county government or to the newspaper outlining their position and making recommendations.

12. Individual Behavior: Anecdotal Record

Objective: To measure student ability to conduct research.

The middle school language arts teacher has been focusing on research study skills in class. The teacher has introduced students to the library and reviewed the process for conducting research, including generating a research question. Each student has reflected on a piece of literature previously read in class and comes up with a question he or she would like to answer, perhaps about the historical background of the story. While the students conduct their research, the teacher records vignettes of student actions. The teacher notes if students use the card catalogue, if they consult with the librarian for additional sources, if they make note cards, and so forth. At the end of the research activity, the teacher will have some insight into which individuals are able to conduct research and which need more practice in the process.

13. Individual Behavior: Performance

Objective: To determine student knowledge of the scientific observation process.

At the conclusion of a unit on the senses, during which groups of students conducted several experiments, students work individually on a lab practical to demonstrate their observation skills. Each student is given water, clear plastic or glass cups, and colored, nontoxic fizzy tablets. They are told to place the tablets in water, observe what happens, and then write down their observations. The teacher will give credit for observations that were accurate and used sensory methods such as sight, taste, smell, and hearing.

14. Group Behavior: Student Evaluation

Objective: To use social skills during group tasks.

After a week-long social studies project that resulted in a group presentation on several inventions designed during the Industrial Revolution and their impact on the students' lives today, the teacher distributes a group evaluation sheet to the students. (See sample items in Figure 8-9.) They are asked to complete it individually at first and then meet with the group to resolve any differences among group members.

15. Group Behavior: Reports

Objective: To evaluate students' abilities to work in a group to prepare an oral presentation.

In the second semester of the year, small groups of middle school students are assigned the task of studying one class of animal (e.g., reptile, fish, bird) and preparing an oral report.

These students had participated in cooperative learning activities previously. To facilitate the first phase of the process, the teacher asks each student to research a different representative animal and share that knowledge with group mates. In the second phase, the teacher suggests the students choose roles such as illustrator, recorder, reporter, and so forth. The students are expected to prepare and present the report collaboratively. During the class time devoted to the project, the teacher evaluates the group process and notes whether (a) all the students participated, (b) they stayed on task, (c) they pooled their information, (d) they selected roles and followed them, and (e) their final report was a balanced representation of their work.

16. Attitude: Interview

Objective: To assess student recognition of the role of geography in society.

World geography had been an elective course in one high school but became required for graduation this year. Anticipating discontent among the seniors forced to take the course, the teacher decides to conduct group interviews. Within the first two weeks of school, the teacher asks small groups of students their feelings about the geography course, their knowledge of other countries' natural resources and land features, and geography's importance in their lives now and in the future. At the end of the course, the teacher asks the students similar questions to determine if their attitudes have changed and whether the teaching has been successful in helping students gain an appreciation of geography.

Group Evaluation Form (Sample)

Please respond to the following statements. Circle A for All, M for Most, S for Some, and N for None.

	All	Most	Some	None
How many members brainstormed ideas for the report?	A	M	S	N
How many members followed his/her assigned role?	A	M	S	N
How many members prepared the final report?	A	M	S	N
How many members praised the ideas of the others?	A	M	S	N
How many members stayed on task during class most of the time?	A	M	S	N

Figure 8-9

Discussion

It is unlikely (and unnecessary) for all cells of the matrix to be filled during any one curricular unit or course. The matrix (Figure 8-4) should be used to display the distribution of alternative assessment practices and the objectives teachers have measured. By keeping track of the filled-in cells, teachers can gauge their efforts at meeting the learning and testing styles of students and make adjustments if the choice of assessment measures has been unbalanced—all content skill measures or all written reports, for example.

The suggested assessment tools allow for oral, written, pictorial, and physical demonstrations of knowledge on the part of the students. They also balance control and responsibility for assessment outcomes between teachers and students. The checklists and observations are informal and teacher controlled; students need not know they are being assessed. The interview process incorporates opportunities for clarification and probing by both the teacher and the students. The other tools are student controlled. Students make their own decisions about the amount of effort they expend to complete the tasks.

Teachers may want to use measures for assessing students beyond those described in the matrix. Journals, profiles, reading logs, and simulations, for instance, may be substituted in the columns or added to the matrix. The increasing use of multimedia technology in the language classroom offers additional avenues for assessment. Video and audiocassette tapes, which may be made at regular intervals and preserved, can capture student oral language development as well as growth of content knowledge. Computers, with tracking and branching capabilities, can individualize student assessment and monitor student progress. Computer simulations with interactive screen and audio components can engender assessment designs that measure all four language skills, problem solving, mastery of content objectives, and more.

The framework recommended in this article involves a time-consuming process. In setting up and implementing the matrix, teachers have to plan ahead and delineate their assessment objectives as they teach because assessment should be linked closely to instruction. Flexibility is important, and insight into student learning styles is crucial. In some instances, teachers will need guidance in evaluating some of the measures. Scoring a portfolio or performance-based task, for example, often requires listing criteria and developing a rating scale in advance. Furthermore, because some administrators and funding authorities prefer quantitative data when making program decisions, teachers should be aware that these individuals may need some training in interpreting the information some of these qualitative assessment tools reveal.

Conclusions

We must always remember that in integrated language and content courses, we are doubly burdening our ELL students. We are demanding that they learn enough English—academic English—to be mainstreamed and that they receive, process, and retain content information, much of which will be unfamiliar in terms of their prior schooling and life experiences. But we have little choice. Time and interest take their toll on our students' educational careers: time because most students do not have five to seven years to master English before approaching a content course in the U.S. educational system, and interest because a grammar-based curriculum is not particularly appealing to a student who wants to fit into the school environment.

Most studies on best practices have pointed to the integration of language and content as an approach to assisting students with limited English proficiency. No approach is without drawbacks, and even if assessment is the weak link in the integrated language and content approach, the framework offered in this article aims to strengthen that aspect of instructional practice. Clearly, some standardized tests and paper-and-pencil chapter tests will continue to be used, but they are not satisfactory as the sole measures of student achievement.

After all, at the heart of instruction is the desire to help our language-minority students learn, and at the heart of assessment is the need to determine whether our students have learned. We must assist them in that process by trying new alternatives that are not so language-bound, time-restrictive, or autonomous. Further, we must design assessment practices that mirror instructional practices. Let us focus on our students' strengths and give them opportunities to demonstrate ability, skill, and knowledge through the medium that suits them best, whether oral or written or even, in the case of beginner students, pictorial. Let us familiarize them in advance with the assessment measures and give them adequate time to complete the tasks. Let us help them take some responsibility for their own evaluation, especially through tools such as student checklists, reports, and portfolios. Good assessment is recognized as that which reflects actual classroom practices, not a one-time standardized exam.

Excerpted from Assessing Integrated Language and Content Instruction, *Deborah J. Short, 1993, TESOL Quarterly, Vol.27, No. 4, www.ncbe.gwu.edu*

7. Standardized Testing and LEP Students

Predominance of Standardized Testing as a Measure of Student Achievement

In recent years, there has been increasing emphasis on setting high standards for all students and holding schools accountable for reaching those standards. When educators take into account what second language research tells them about how long it takes to acquire a language, they conclude that holding LEP students to these high standards will require more resources than they now possess. Most states have adopted "waivers" for LEP students that exempt the students from taking the tests for a period of one to three years, but most LEP students will still have difficulty performing well on standardized tests that are both linguistically and culturally biased. In addition, many districts are introducing end-of-course tests for high school which are not subject to a state's waiver policy. Check with your ESL teacher, a guidance counselor, or a district assessment person about policies related to exempting students with limited mastery of English from state- or district-mandated tests.

This issue is entirely too complex to discuss in depth here, but there are things that we—as teachers—can do to improve what seems like a no-win situation. Some suggestions include the following:

- Help LEP students to learn the strategies and skills required for taking a standardized test.
- Advocate for intensive ESL/bilingual programs in your local district.
- Find out about special "testing modifications" (for example, extended time, having test read aloud in English, use of bilingual dictionary) that your state allows, and use these modifications when you test your students on a regular basis in the regular classroom. Most states require that testing modifications allowed on the state tests must be used on a routine basis with LEP students in their classrooms or the students will not be able to benefit from them when the tests are administered. If you are unsure of which modifications should be used, ask your ESL teacher, guidance counselor, or district assessment person about which modifications are recommended for each of your LEP students.
- Ensure that if an LEP student is able to take a portion of a standardized test (for example, math), that he or she participates as soon as possible.
- Educate yourself about second language acquisition and recommended strategies for LEP students so that you'll be a more informed advocate for sensible policies.

You are not alone in feeling that simply setting higher standards does not ensure that LEP students will be capable of achieving them. However, if we consider this movement as a process that will end in improving educational programs for all students, then we can work at not only improving our own teaching, but also advocating at every level for programs that we know will help LEP students achieve in ways we never thought possible.

Examples of Testing Modifications Available to ELL Students (Virginia)

Accommodations which maintain standard conditions

Timing/Scheduling

- Time of day
- Student takes only one or two subtests a day (requires individual or small group testing)
- Longer breaks between subtests (requires individual or small group testing)
- Multiple test sessions (a subtest must be completed in one session)
- Flexible schedule (order of tests)

Setting

- Preferential seating (at the front of the room or in a study carrel)
- Small group testing
- Individual testing
- In a location with minimal distractions

Presentation

- Simplify oral directions
- Masks or markers to maintain place

Accommodations which do not maintain standard conditions

These accommodations should be used only if the testing committee agrees that testing the student under standard conditions would not yield scores that are an accurate representation of the student's achievement.

Nonstandard accommodations include the following:

- Extended time
- Breaks during a subtest
- Reading of test items on subtest, other than "Reading," in English
- Use of a bilingual dictionary
- Reading the embedded written directions in English to the student

Does the student typically receive accommodations, such as those listed, during instruction or during classroom assessments in the content covered by the subtest?

- If yes, the committee should consider allowing these same testing accommodations during test administration.
- If no, the student should take the subtest without any accommodations.

Student Ideas about What Would Help Them Succeed on Tests of ELLs

Here are the findings of focus groups that were asked a variety of questions about their experiences with preparing for taking standardized tests.

Extra Time

- Make sure that test administrators know that students can take as much time as they need. Many students were not able to finish because they were told to stop.

Separate Setting

- Taking the test in a separate setting could be helpful but must be the student's choice.
- Taking the test with other LEP students probably would be more comfortable because others also would need extra time; there wouldn't be pressure to stop before completing the test.

Written Translation

- Translation of directions could help some students. There were many examples of students missing parts of the directions and how these probably affected their test performance.
- While translation of the math test, with its many word problems, probably would help students, there is concern about the potentially negative consequences of receiving a "Pass-Translate" notation.
- Two factors complicate matters: (1) students have not attempted the math problems in their first languages, so translation might not be all that useful, and (2) since many students cannot read their first language, translations would have to be oral, not written.

Audiotapes

- Students with low reading skills might benefit from listening to an English tape of the math test.

Scoring Option

- A "Pass-LEP" scoring option would help some students, especially grade 12 students at risk of not graduating.
- Most want to achieve the "Pass-State" level on the tests; the other options would be acceptable only if they are not "held against" LEP students.

Test Preparation

- All supported spending class time on practice tests as well as having these available to take home.
- There was also support for offering classes to help students pass.
- Parents did not want the tests made easier for LEP students; they wanted the students to be taught effectively so that they can pass at the standard level.

Excerpted from Findings from Research on Accommodated Statewide Assessments for English Language Learners, *M. Thurlow, K. Liu, C. Quest, S. Thompson, D. Albus, M. Anderson, 1998, Minnesota Assessment Project, National Center on Educational Outcomes, University of Minnesota*

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Chapter 9 At-a-Glance

Chapter 9 is dedicated to the important topic of how to form meaningful partnerships with the parents of migrant students who often feel as though they are strangers in a strange land. The linkage between parental support and their children's success in school is well documented. This chapter will provide you with insights into some reasons why it is often difficult to communicate with and enlist the support of language-minority parents across cultural and linguistic divides. It is particularly difficult at the middle and high school levels where a student has so many different teachers.

In this chapter, you will also find many practical strategies for reaching out to migrant parents who may feel intimidated in a school setting. It is particularly crucial to keep the lines of communication open with parents who may depend completely on their children for translations. They need to know when their children are doing well and when they are not doing well so that they can lend their support. Too often, if a student is struggling academically and/or socially, the parents are the last ones to know.

Toward the end of the chapter, you will find some documents translated into Spanish. The document entitled "Parental and Student Responsibilities" (in English and Spanish on page 184) is a comprehensive list of things that parents need to know about U.S. schools and what is expected of parents and students. This list also contains specific tips on what parents should do to ensure that their children do not lose precious partial or full credits as they move from school to school. The document in Spanish entitled "Sugerencias Para Los Padres" (p. 188) does not have an English version. It addresses the rights that parents have to ask for translators and spells out some important expectations of U.S. schools, such as attending parent meetings, where failing to appear may be interpreted as lack of interest.

In the spring, Goyo Vargas, the mayordomo from the farm in Minnesota came to ask Papa if we would sign up to go north again. Of course we would go. As he had every other year, the mayordomo asked if Papa would be willing to go in early May and stay until October. Papa answered as he did every other year. We would go the day after school ended and we would return the day before school started. Papa told Goyo again how important it was to him that his children finish high school. Goyo smiled, shook his head at Papa's stubborn dreams, and agreed.

—*Barefoot Heart: Stories of a Migrant Child*
by Elva Treviño Hart

CHAPTER 9:
Fostering Home-School Partnerships

We know that parental encouragement, activities, and interest at home and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement. Moreover, it seems that the most useful variety of parent involvement is contact between parents and their children in the home, which encourages and aids school achievement.

For the growing numbers of limited- or non-English-proficient parents, parent involvement of any kind in the school process is a new cultural concept. The overwhelming majority of language-minority parents believe that the role of the family is to nurture their children, while the role of the school is to educate them. They believe that the schools might construe their personal involvement as interference. To involve language-minority parents in their children's education, we must acculturate them to the meaning of parent involvement in their new social environment.

While most language-minority parents do not have the English language proficiency to engage in many of the school's typical parent activities, they may be very successful at parent-school collaboration at home. These parents can learn to reinforce educational concepts in the native language and/or English. At the secondary level, parents who are not able to assist with content-area lessons can at least participate in a homework checking system that has been negotiated with the teachers. Whenever possible, bilingual community liaisons should help bridge language and cultural differences between home and school.

1. Categories of Involvement

Epstein (1995) has been one of the principal researchers of parental involvement and its effect on student achievement. She identified six categories of parent involvement in the education of children:

1. **Providing for children's basic needs**

   By seeing that children are fed, clothed, have enough sleep, and enjoy a secure, loving environment, parents contribute to the well-being a child needs to focus attention on learning both at home and at school. One school-related example is ensuring that children have necessary school supplies and a place to study at home.

2. **Communicating with school staff**

   All schools seek to communicate with parents in one form or another during the school year. Parents' understanding of such communication depends in part on their literacy level and proficiency in the language (usually English) used to send communications home. When schools can provide written communications the parents can understand and can provide a person who speaks the parents' native language(s), cooperation between schools and language-minority parents improves greatly.

3. **Volunteering or providing assistance at their child's school**

   This kind of involvement was traditionally expected, particularly of mothers at the elementary school level. However, in Epstein's study, such involvement rarely includes more than a few parents in any school. More than 70 percent of the parents surveyed had never assisted school staff. As more and more parents work outside the home during school hours, this traditional form of parent involvement has diminished.

4. **Supporting and participating in learning activities with their children at home**

   Epstein looked, in particular, at parental activity that related directly to the children's work in class. She discovered the following:

   More than 85 percent of parents spend at least 15 minutes helping their child at home when asked to do so by the teacher; most said they would spend more time if they were told what to do and how to help.

5. **Participating in governance and advocacy activities**

   "Governance" and "advocacy" refer to the avenues by which parents and the community can influence decision making in a school system. Epstein distinguishes the two in the following way: governance activities occur under the auspices of the school system (for example, school-appointed advisory committees). Advocacy activities are organized and conducted independent of the school system: one example would be a citizen's group formed to lobby the school board on changes in the curriculum. Each type of participation requires a certain level of understanding of the school's programs and confidence on the part of the parents. Each also requires a willingness and commitment on the part of educators to include families in the decision-making process in meaningful ways.

6. **Collaborating with the community**

   Parents encourage partnerships with community resources and services. This aspect of parent involvement is particularly important at the secondary level. Community organizations and churches often sponsor extended-day and/or enrichment activities that provide needed academic and social support.

Stages of Adjustment for Newcomers

Most of our language-minority families are still adjusting to the mainstream culture and language of the United States. The lives of these families changed radically when they moved to this country. Relationships with kin and community were disrupted, as were culturally valued ways of connecting families to community life.

It helps to recognize that different stages of adjustment may elicit different responses from parents with respect to their willingness and/or availability to be actively involved in their children's education. For example, all newcomers to the school system need basic information about school requirements, routines, schedules, and the like. For language-minority newcomers, such information may need to be given in the home language and in a setting where there can be personal, face-to-face exchange and clarification. As families become more settled in the community and feel more familiar with how the school system operates, they may be more willing to participate in governance and advocacy activities.

Stages of Adjustment for Newcomers

Arrival/Survival

Parents require orientation and information on the school community, how to enroll their children, what is required. Information given in the native language is particularly helpful. Time for participation may be quite limited, but interest level may be high.

Culture Shock

During this emotionally stressful time, parents' energies are drained and their enthusiasm for things "American" may be minimal. Parental support groups, personal contacts from school personnel, and minimizing demands on their time while keeping lines of communication open can be of great benefit.

Coping

As parents begin to become familiar with a new cultural system and their role in it, encourage their participation in school activities, provide specific well-defined tasks and responsibilities, and encourage them to reach out to others who need support and assistance.

Acculturation

Parent feels comfortable in the "new" cultural setting. Encourage participation in all activities, provide opportunities for leadership and mentoring of other parents, and acquaint them with options for participation in the wider school community.

Figure 9-1

Implementing a Participation Model

How can a local school system encourage the participation of parents who are newly arrived and/or whose English proficiency is limited? Experience shows that these parents do care about their children's education and want to be involved in their local schools. When a school system provides caring, sensitive, and enlightened avenues for these parents, they become active partners in education. Migrant farm workers often have a low level of literacy in their native language (usually Spanish) and a limited amount of schooling in their native country. Some of the adults from rural areas of Mexico and Central America speak an indigenous language that may limit their ability to communicate orally in Spanish. These factors make including migrant parents even more of a challenge because sending written materials home in Spanish (or in the indigenous language) is often not helpful.

Factors that Affect Parental Involvement

In designing appropriate support systems for parents in general, the experiences and resources of language-minority parents should be acknowledged and respected. Although every family entering the school system is unique, some generalizations can be helpful. Differences in levels of involvement may be influenced by the following factors:

1. **Length of residence in the United States**

   Newcomers to this country will most likely need considerable orientation and support in order to understand what their child's school expects in the way of participation and involvement. Native language communication, cultural orientation sessions, and the support of others who have been newcomers can be extremely helpful during what may be a stressful adjustment period.

2. **English language proficiency**

   Parents whose English proficiency is limited may find it difficult or intimidating to communicate with school staff or to help in school activities without bilingual support. These parents can, of course, participate successfully and can help their children at home, so take care to see that they receive information and that their efforts are welcomed and encouraged.

3. **Availability of support groups and bilingual staff**

   Native language parent groups and bilingual school personnel can make a crucial difference in fostering involvement among parents. Friendly, courteous front office staff and a bilingual telephone system encourage parents to feel welcome at school and to make phone contact when necessary. Bilingual community liaisons can also translate the information provided to parents. These services ensure that information is understood and demonstrate to parents that the school wants to involve them actively in the life of the school and in their children's academic development.

4. **Prior experiences**

   Language-minority parents differ widely in the extent to which they are familiar and comfortable with the concept of parental involvement in schools. Some newcomers may have been actively involved in their children's education in their native country, while others may come from cultures where the parent's role in education is understood in very different terms. Others, as indicated in Epstein's study, may need only some specific suggestions on how to "help" in order to participate more actively in education at home and at school.

5. **Positive attitude**

   According to a study of high-achieving migrant students (Center for Educational Planning, 1989) parents of high achievers could list the ways the school helped their children. These parents held positive attitudes about the school. Parents of low achievers, on the other hand, were more negative and could not list anything the school was doing on behalf of their children. Even though no migrant parents in this study helped their children with homework, parents of high achievers reported that they spent time communicating with their children and giving them educational experiences.

6. **Economic need**

   Parents who are barely surviving economically find that their children's school attendance is a hardship. Children could improve the family's income by working in the fields if they did not have to go to school.

2. How Can We Promote Home Language Use?

In school

1. Provide ongoing staff development opportunities that increase awareness of the key role that native language literacy plays in a student's English language development.
2. Encourage educators to use a curriculum that reflects the culture, values, interests, experiences, and concerns of language minority children.
3. Help children feel pride in their home language and cultural heritage.
4. Introduce all students to the joys of cultural diversity and the desirability of learning more than one language.
5. Promote two-way bilingual programs.
6. Hire and develop culturally experienced and bilingual staff.
7. Raise teacher expectations of students who have a limited grasp of English.
8. Empower parents and communicate with them in their home language.
9. Provide students with interesting reading material in their native language. There are many websites in Spanish (for example, www.latinolink.com).
10. Give students the opportunity to write in "journals" using their native language.
11. Invite guest speakers who represent a variety of cultural groups to address the entire class or student body.
12. Ensure that educators promote communication in the family's home language, rather than sending a strong "English only" message to language-minority students and their families.

In the home

1. Develop supportive program practices that strengthen family bonds and the parents' role in their child's development and education.
2. Educate parents about the importance of using the home language with their children and that the continuing development of the home language strengthens—rather than impedes—their child's ability to learn English.

3. Cultural Considerations for Language-Minority Parents

One of the greatest sources of conflict in the acculturation process is what many parents consider to be a crisis of authority and the pressure they feel to adopt different standards and methods of discipline. In many traditional Hispanic families, the children are taught that the needs and desires of the individual are secondary to those of the family unit. Rather than satisfying personal needs, ELL students are often asked to fulfill roles that benefit the entire family, such as working, babysitting, or translating. In direct conflict is the perception of many parents of ELL students that U.S. schools tend to foster individualism and independence to the extent that children fail to learn social responsibilities toward the family.

Parents of ELL students may often feel that U.S. schools seem to produce self-centered individuals who aggressively vocalize their rights and who arrogantly defy their parents' values. The development of these attitudes undermines the norms of the native culture that consider parents, and adults in general, as people to be respected and obeyed without question.

The role of family and its members, as well as child-rearing practices may directly conflict with expectations of U.S. school personnel. Parents of ELL students tend to experience difficulty with "democratic" ideals to the extent that such ideals are reflected in U.S. classrooms and schools. Non-U.S. schools and school systems tend to be highly authoritarian and are closely connected to their respective governments. Mexico is an example of a country where the federal government dictates education policies.

Parents of ELL students tend not to participate in PTA/PTO and other parent-school groups. This is not due to lack of concern or interest; parent-school groups are often not a part of their cultural experience. In addition, if no provisions are made to make meetings accessible and/or comprehensible to language-minority parents, they are unlikely to participate.

In some countries, parents play an important role in their children's schools by assisting with fund-raising activities to help secure needed equipment such as computers, which are not provided by the government. Thus, when given a clear need and manner in which they can realistically contribute, and when such activities are planned around parents' work schedules, parents may become active participants in school initiatives.

Regarding providing input into school regulations and policies, many parents of ELL students genuinely believe that it is the role of the school/district personnel to decide policies and procedures without their intervention. Parents who have limited schooling do not consider it appropriate to question a teacher's or administrator's decisions or try to intervene in school matters on behalf of their children.

By establishing trust and a positive relationship with family members, educators can help them to see that they do have rights, responsibilities, and input into the educational system in the U.S. Efforts should be made to provide parents with clear, ongoing communication (in their native language) regarding their children's progress, needs, and specific ways they can help their children be successful in school. It is very important for children to see their parents as partners with their teachers. When students are the only ones in the family who know the regulations, expectations ("No, I don't have any homework"), progress, and difficulties, this may create a potentially damaging rift and loss of parental authority within an otherwise strong family unit.

4. Involving Parents of High School Students

Orienting parents to the ins and outs of the high school experience

Parents of entering ninth-graders and newly enrolled students should be invited to school for an orientation that will inform them about the purpose of high school, the different academic choices that their child has, the rules of conduct, and the supportive role that they'll be expected to play in key areas such as attendance. Parents should be provided with information regarding appropriate procedures for dealing with school and district personnel (ways of diffusing potential problems), as well as how to solve problems that arise. They should also be informed of the school's grading system and how it differs from the system in their home country.

From the very beginning, the parents should be made to feel welcome (in their native language) and to feel that they can ask for help at any time. Many of the parents haven't attended high school and have little idea as to why schooling at this level is even necessary when their child could be earning a paycheck.

Importance of the bilingual home/school liaison (often a role taken on by migrant and/or ESL staff)

Bilingual home/school liaisons guide school staff, provide inservice training for educators, offer services to parents, and perform other tasks that promote partnerships. They can help to inform parents of their rights and responsibilities. They are able to create a bridge across languages and cultures and facilitate the communication between the classroom teachers and their ELL students' parents.

Encouraging parents to take an active role at home

Many schools are finding that much can be done to assist families in working with their own children at home to help them to do better in school. Once considered the most difficult type of involvement, this is becoming the most relevant kind of involvement for families, schools, and student learning.

Promising efforts using technology

- Teaching family members how to use computers (by loaning out laptops and/or inviting parents to school for computer training)
- Using video and audio tapes to supplement instruction
- Starting a homework hotline
- Using bilingual voice mail recordings that have instructions and/or bulletins

Importance of including teachers as major players

Teachers are too often left out of the loop when it comes to parent involvement efforts. Home/school coordinators are key people who can encourage meaningful communication between the teacher(s) and the parent(s). At the high school level, students have many teachers, which makes forging these partnerships more challenging. Some possibilities for increasing the dialogue include the following:

- Arranging homework and report card checking systems
- Helping parents schedule visits to every teacher in order to find out how they can help
- Inviting teachers to accompany a home visitor in order to meet a family
- Hosting open houses when parents can come to meet with all teachers and pick up their child's report card
- Providing teachers with ongoing staff development focused on cultural diversity and parent involvement

Helping with homework

Many schools (and migrant programs) sponsor afternoon resource periods that are designed to help students complete their homework. Are there ways that parents can be more involved in these efforts?

Parent centers

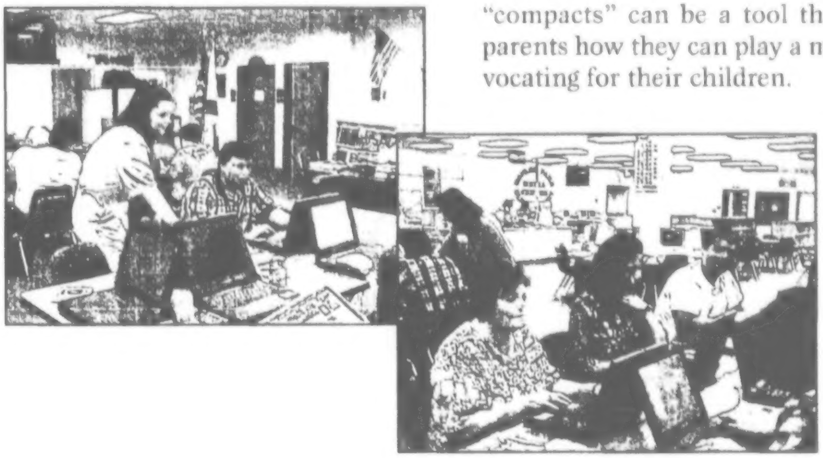
Parent centers show a great commitment by a school to making parents feel welcome. They can be the focal point for many valuable parent involvement efforts, such as training and discussions on the many issues and challenges that arise during their children's teen years. Videos, bilingual materials regarding secondary and post-secondary concerns, and laptop computers can be made available to families on a check-out basis. Parent center staff could also help with the complex process of applying to a college and finding financial aid. Many grants are available for the formation of parent resource centers.

Mobile resource centers

For areas with pockets of families residing in isolated rural areas, educational systems can provide outreach services by using buses outfitted with lending libraries and computer stations. Buses retired from the school system's transportation fleet can be outfitted for educational activities by combining local and federal funds or by securing donations from business partners. Parent groups or student service clubs might adopt such an effort as the focus of their fund-raising activities. Playing an active role such as this in their children's education, with clearly visible results, may be a positive springboard to meaningful parent involvement.

Parent "compacts"

A meaningful activity can be helping parents to identify personal goals for themselves that will increase their commitment to developing and maintaining a dialogue with their children and the school staff. An example might be committing to the goal of visiting each of their child's teachers once a year. Another goal might be to meet with a guidance counselor to help map out what they need to do in order to ensure that their child can go on to college. These "compacts" can be a tool that will spell out for parents how they can play a more active role in advocating for their children.



4. Teacher Tips for Using an Interpreter

Tips for any interpreted situation

- Arrange the seating so that you are facing the parent. Continue to look at the parent throughout the conversation even if you feel that the parent is not understanding you. Most parents will understand at least a few words of English—but more importantly—they will notice if your attention is not focused on them. Be aware of what message your body language is conveying.
- Address the parent directly using "Mr.," "Mrs.," or "you." Try to avoid a tendency to say to the interpreter "Tell him/her...". Again, the parent needs to feel that you are communicating directly with him/her.
- Speak clearly and at a normal rate. Enunciate fully. Be cautious of speaking fast and running words together.
- Use a standard vocabulary. Avoid slang and idioms. If you must use a technical or complicated term, provide a brief explanation.
- Be straightforward. Plan and state the basic points you want to communicate. Keep your phrases and sentences short and concise. Pause often to allow for high-accuracy interpretation.
- When the parent speaks, continue to watch him or her. Observe non-verbal communication.
- Practice good rules of conversational turn-taking. Give time for the parent to speak. Listen.
- Be patient. Interpretation requires more time than single language communication.
- Do not make assumptions. Many parents have limited experience with educational requirements, expectations, programs, and services. Provide details and concrete examples to illustrate your points.

Tips for parent-teacher conferences

The first step toward successful communication is understanding that your goals as teacher and those of an immigrant parent for a parent-teacher conference often differ. In general, Latino parents view as their responsibility sending their child to school clean, well-clothed, and fed and ensuring that they are "bien educado," respectful, mannerly, well-behaved. You as the teacher are the educational expert and instruction is your responsibility. This means that the first question in a Latino parent's mind as he or she begins a conference is: "Has my child been well-behaved?"

- Begin with positive information, especially regarding behavior, respectfulness, attitude, cleanliness, attentiveness, and good attendance. Compliment the parent on their influence in these areas.
- Encourage the use of the family's native language at home. Place value on the parent's contribution to building the child's character, general knowledge, and (when feasible, according to parent literacy) literacy skills through interactions in the native language. Do not encourage a family to speak only English at home.
- In addressing academic issues, choose only one or two key points to discuss. To discuss too many academic problems can give the impression that you are scolding the parent for not doing his or her job sufficiently or can imply that the child is less capable of learning.
- Have a few samples of the student's work available to support your praise or affirm your concerns.
- Ascertain that parents understand the grading scale and dates of report card distributions as well as attendance, testing, and graduation requirements.
- Many parents may be illiterate in both English and their native language. Enlist their assistance by suggesting concrete ways they can support their children's education, such as establishing a daily study routine; asking to see homework, test scores, and report cards; assigning a place in the home that serves as a study area; and trying to help children juggle academic responsibilities along with their household tasks.

5. Handouts for Parents

5A. Parental and Student Responsibilities

Many students in today's mobile society attend several schools throughout their secondary education, with rules and expectations varying from school to school. Listed below are some of the issues families with secondary-aged students should be aware of.

Attendance

- School attendance is mandatory for all young people below the age of 16 (may vary from state to state). A student may not be kept home from school to work, babysit a younger sibling, translate, or attend to family business. Parents can be legally prosecuted for truant children.
- Students should enroll in school on the first day of the school year, regardless of their location or how long they intend to stay there, rather than waiting until they return "home" to enroll.
- Daily attendance is expected, unless there is an excused absence.
- Many schools have attendance policies requiring teachers to fail students with excessive absences, regardless of the actual grade earned.
- When students do have excused absences, it is their responsibility to make up missed assignments, depending on a teacher's make-up policies.
- The school should be notified of absences by a phone call or written note from a parent.

Transferring

- A variety of documents may be required from state to state. Be prepared to provide the following: immunization records, physical exam, transcript or most recent report card, withdrawal grades, proof of domicile (for school zone assignment).
- Notify the school you are leaving, preferably in advance, but if not, when you reestablish residency.
- Generally on the last day before a student withdraws or transfers, all books are returned to each class, and teachers assign withdrawal grades based on the work the student completed while enrolled in the class. Try to get copies of these grades to carry with you to the next school.
- Schools may attempt to withhold withdrawal grades if the student does not return all books or owes the school money.
- The grades received at time of withdrawal are extremely important. They help the staff in the next school the student enters to enroll him or her in the appropriate courses and reduce the risk of losing precious credits.
- Families should attempt to travel to new destinations on weekends to minimize the number of school days missed.
- Even if it is close to the end of the school year or near vacation time or the time expected to be in a location is short, children should still be enrolled in school every day possible.

English version continued on page 186

5B. Responsabilidades de Los Padres y Alumnos (Spanish version)

Asistencia escolar obligatoria

- Asistencia a la escuela es obligatoria para niños y jóvenes de 6 a 16 años. (La edad obligatoria varia de un estado a otro.) No se permite que jóvenes de edad escolar falten a sus clases por razones de trabajo en la casa, para cuidar a hermanitos menores o para hacer traducciones para familiares que no dominan el inglés. Los padres pueden ser enjuiciados en caso de que uno de sus niños o niñas falte habitualmente a sus clases.
- Cada estudiante debe matricularse en la escuela más cercana a su domicilio actual en el primer día del año escolar. Si al iniciarse el año escolar la familia se encuentre temporalmente lejos de su domicilio permanente, los padres no deben postergar la matrícula. En esta situación, los niños aún pueden ser matriculados en la escuela más cercana.
- Los estudiantes deben asistir diariamente a la escuela, y sólo se permiten ausencias que se han justificado con anticipación.
- El reglamento de muchas escuelas obliga a los profesores dar notas desaprobatorias a estudiantes con un número excesivo de ausencias injustificadas.
- En caso de ausencia, el estudiante tiene la responsabilidad de completar las tareas asignadas en clase.
- Para justificar una ausencia, un familiar debe notificar a la administración de la escuela por teléfono o por escrito la ausencia anticipada del estudiante.

Procedimientos para cambiar de escuela (Transferencia de matrícula)

- Los documentos necesarios para cambiar de escuela varia de un estado a otro. La familia debe tener disponible los siguientes documentos por cada hijo para tramitar una nueva matrícula:
    - libreta de vacunas contra enfermedades contagiosas
    - prueba de examen médico reciente
    - libreta de notas ('report card') o certificado ('transcript') de las clases que se completaron en la escuela anterior
    - una prueba de notas parciales ('withdrawal grades') recibidas en clases que se atendieron en la escuela anterior (para estudiantes que cambian de escuela antes de la clausura del año escolar)
    - prueba del domicilio nuevo (para determinar la zona escolar de matrícula)
- Antes de salir de la escuela que se está atendiendo, la familia debe notificar con anticipación a la administración que sus hijos se trasladarán a otra escuela.
- Generalmente, los deberes en el último día de clase que se atiende son los siguientes:
    - devolver todos los libros de texto a cada profesor(a)
    - pedir a los profesores una prueba de notas parciales ('withdrawal grades'). recibidas en sus respectivas clases. Se presenta una copia de dicha prueba a los profesores en la próxima escuela.
    - pagar las deudas escolares, por ejemplo, multas por libros devueltos con retraso a la biblioteca, pagos por derechos escolares, etc.
- En el caso de que no se devuelvan todos los libros de texto o los libros a la biblioteca escolar, o si no se paguen todas las deudas escolares, es posible que la administración de la escuela no proporcione las notas parciales('withdrawal grades') o las notas finales por los cursos en que se matriculó.
- Es muy importante recibir una prueba de las notas parciales ('withdrawal grades') de la escuela anterior. Se usan estas notas para matricular al/a la estudiante en las clases que le corresponden según su edad y las asignaturas que cursó en su escuela anterior. Estas notas verifican las asignaturas que se completaron en la escuela anterior. Si se falta esta verificación de notas, sus hijos corren el riesgo de perder los créditos académicos de las asignaturas de la escuela anterior.
- Las familias deben planear su viaje al nuevo domicilio o destino durante los fines de semana; así se reducen las ausencias escolares.
    - Las familias deben maximizar el tiempo en que sus hijos están matriculados en el colegio más cercano a su lugar de trabajo, no obstante la clausura inminente del año escolar o una jornada corta de trabajo.

Véase la página 187 para la versión española.

Student Code of Conduct

- Each school has a handbook detailing the school rules and expectations for students. Students usually receive this at time of enrollment. It is the student's and parent's responsibility to be familiar with the required code of conduct.
- While each school's code of conduct is unique, regulations regarding the following issues are usually addressed: dress code, illegal substances, firearms, cheating, leaving campus without permission, inappropriate physical contact, fighting, etc.
- Generally, a scale of punishment is dealt out, depending on the offense.
- Students may be required to attend detention after school or on Saturdays. Transportation is generally not provided.
- They may perform work duty in the cafeteria or around campus.
- They may be asked to write a paper, do community service, or attend special counseling groups.
- Parents should be aware of school regulations and have high expectations for their children's behavior as well as academic performance.

Safety/Discipline

- It is important—for each student's safety—for the school to be notified of the reason for his or her absence from school. The school recommends that parents call or drop by the school with the reason for the absence. Spanish-speaking parents may call and ask to speak with a bilingual contact.
- The United States has strict guidelines for disciplining children. If a child is physically, emotionally, or sexually abused at home, the child may be taken away from the parents by a local child protection agency.

The guidelines for disciplining are as follows:

(a) No child may be hit with a closed fist.

(b) No child may be struck with an object such as a belt, wooden stick, etc.

It is essential that parents provide the school with a reliable emergency contact number so that the school can contact someone during the school day in case of an accident or other emergency.

In Case of Illness

If the school recommends medical treatment for a student, the parents must do what is required (for example, visit a doctor and/or obtain a certain medicine). If, for some reason, parents cannot fulfill this obligation, they should notify the school and/or a home-school liaison for assistance with accessing medical care.

Códigos estudiantiles de buena conducta

- La administración de cada escuela proporciona una guía de buena conducta a cada estudiante nuevo cuando se matricula. La guía especifica las normas que reglan la conducta y delinea como los estudiantes deben comportarse. Los estudiantes y sus familias deben familiarizarse con estas normas de buena conducta.
- Aunque la administración de cada colegio escribe su propia guía de buena conducta, generalmente se incluyen las siguientes normas: código de vestimenta apropiada, una lista de los productos ilícitos cuyo uso se prohibe en el recinto escolar, la prohibición de portar las armas de fuego o los cuchillos, las penalidades que se aplican si un estudiante copia en un examen o ayuda a otro a copiar (***cheats**), sale del recinto escolar sin pedir permiso, o pelea con otro estudiante. También se prohibe el contacto íntimo entre los estudiantes en el recinto escolar.
- La guía de buena conducta indica los castigos que se aplican cuando se violan las normas. Por cometer un delito, un estudiante puede incurrir castigos similares a los siguientes:
    - quedarse en el salón de detención fuera del horario normal de las clases o en el día sábado. En este caso, la administración del colegio no tiene la responsabilidad de proporcionar servicio de transporte al estudiante detenido. La familia tiene la responsabilidad de recoger al estudiante después de su período de detención.
    - trabajar como ayudante en el comedor escolar o hacer limpieza en el recinto escolar por un período determinado.
    - escribir un trabajo escrito para explicar cómo se modificará su conducta en el futuro
    - proporcionar servicios a la comunidad por un período determinado: hacer limpieza de plazas o áreas públicas,
    - tomar parte de grupos de discusión para estudiantes quienes han cometido delitos.
- En general, las familias pueden colaborar con las escuelas en la formación de sus hijos por medio de familiarizarse con las normas escolares. Pero las familias rinden su mejor y más valioso apoyo a sus hijos cuando demuestran confianza en la capacidad de sus hijos de comportarse como es debido y demuestran la fe que sus hijos pueden lograr altos niveles de éxito académico.

Seguridad / Disciplina

- Es importante—para la seguridad de cada hijo—que los padres avisen la escuela cuando un hijo se queda en casa. La escuela recomienda que los padres llamen o pasen por la escuela para decirles por qué su hijo no está.
- En los Estados Unidos hay reglas estrictas sobre las maneras aceptadas de disciplina. Si un niño es abusado físicamente, emocionalmente, o sexualmente en casa, el niño será quitado de los padres por una agencia local de protección de niños.

Las reglas de disciplina son:

(a) No se permite pegar a un niño con puño cerrado.

(b) No se permite pegar a un niño con un objeto como cinturón, palo, etc.

Es muy importante que los padres den a la escuela un número de teléfono que se puede usar durante el día escolar en caso de emergencia.

En Caso de Enfermedad

Si la escuela recomienda un tratamiento médico para un niño—los padres deben seguir el aviso, por ejemplo: visitar a un doctor o comprar una medicina. Si—por alguna razón—los padres no pueden cumplir con el tratamiento sugerido, deben avisar la escuela para que puedan ayudarles.

5C. Sugerencias para los Padres

Idioma.

Si los administradores escolares no hablan su idioma, puede hacer lo siguiente: Asegúrese antes de llegar a la escuela de sus hijos, que habrá alguien presente que hable el idioma indicado para así facilitar la conferencia entre el padre y los maestros. Siempre sería recomendable llamar antes y pedir una cita con la Directora de la escuela o el maestro de sus hijos. También sería recomendable pedir información escrita en el idioma de uno, para así comprender más a profundidad como es el manejo de la escuela y de las clases. Estos informes le darán una idea de los procedimientos, reglamentos, y requisitos del sistema escolar.

Diferencia en el Sistema Cultural.

En los Estados Unidos se requiere que los padres se comuniquen con los maestros para discutir el progreso, el comportamiento, y las calificaciones de sus hijos. El romper citas o simplemente no acudir a las mismas, se interpreta como una falta de interés por parte de los padres.

Derechos y Responsabilidades.

Ustedes tienen derecho, como padres, a ser informados sobre todos los procedimientos, exámenes, calificaciones, y decisiones que afecten a sus hijos. A la misma vez, ustedes tienen responsabilidades—todo no puede ser por parte de la escuela sin la cooperación de los padres.

Conferencias.

Discutan con los maestros de sus hijos asuntos tales como horas en que puedan tener conferencias y transporte a las mismas—siempre existen alternativas—y los maestros de sus hijos estarán dispuestos para recibirlos.

Estado de Inmigracion.

Las escuelas NO son extensiones del gobierno federal. Aunque las mismas reciben fondos del gobierno NO son lugares políticos donde se discuten asuntos de inmigración. Hacer esto es ilegal.

Nuestra Cultura.

Aprendan todo lo que puedan sobre la cultura norteamericana—pero nunca se olviden ni dejen la suya. Es sumamente importante que sus hijos se sientan orgullosos de su cultura y que se sientan así porque sus padres se los han inculcado. Estos valores y costumbres son los que nos destacan como latinos y debemos de estar orgullosos de eso.

Recuerde que:

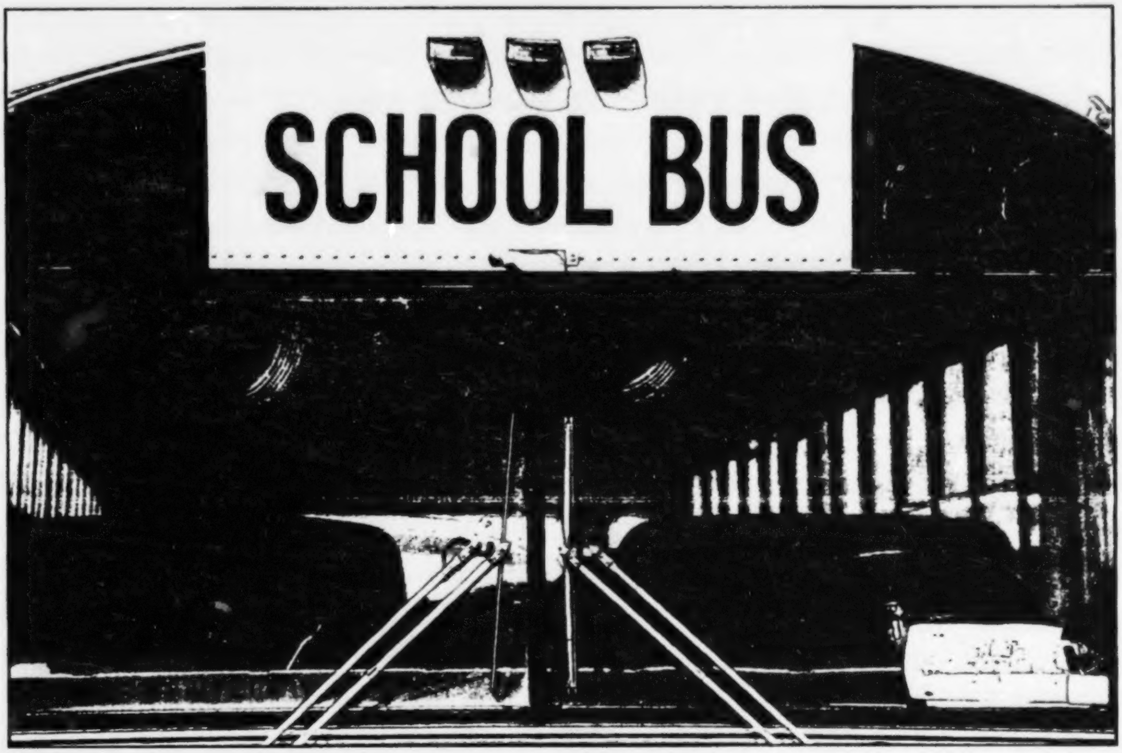
Ustedes son la extensión de los maestros en la casa.

Manténgase siempre en contacto con la escuela.

Tienen derechos y responsabilidades.

"Here in the U.S., I get help from the tutors. It is hard because it is another language and another country, but the time is passing, and we are each day better."

—Antonio, 9th-grade migrant student



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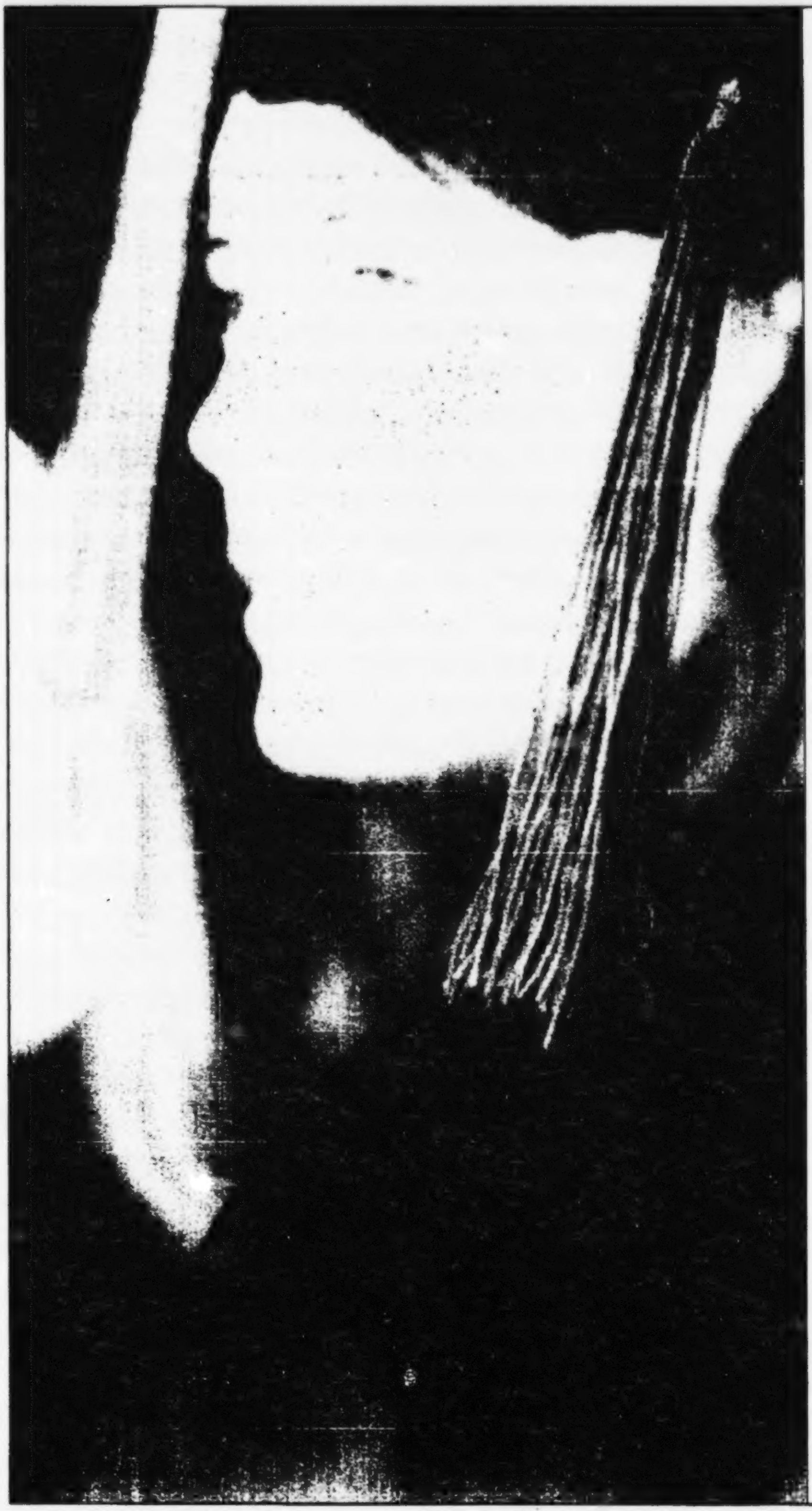
Chapter 10 At-a-Glance

Chapter 10 is filled with practical suggestions on how to address the needs of highly mobile students. Migrant students face many daunting challenges on the road to getting a high school diploma. Two of the primary ones are limited proficiency in English and inability to accrue the credits necessary for graduation. A third challenge has emerged in recent years—the requirement that a student pass a standardized test or series of tests before he or she can graduate.

Some of the highlights of Chapter 10 are

- Approaches that promote high school completion
- Strategies tailored to the needs of highly mobile students
- Case studies showing how you as a teacher can make a difference

A number of the approaches outlined in this chapter are national in scope and are designed specifically to benefit migrant students. Programs such as the Portable Assisted Study Sequence (page 198) and a variety of distance learning options (page 199) are examples of innovative strategies that address the needs of migrant students.



> ***My life, my heritage has been a cycle of poverty, of goals that were never achieved; I want to break that cycle. I want to achieve for my family so that my parents can be proud of me.***
>
> —Student interviewed by the Hispanic Dropout Project

CHAPTER 10:

The Challenge of Meeting Graduation Requirements

1. Approaches that Promote High School Completion

Counseling Approaches

Counseling programs attempt to enhance students' self-esteem by making the school environment more friendly and supportive, thereby developing greater social and self-awareness in students. The following are strategies included in some counseling approaches:

Peer counseling

Students develop a sense of responsibility and usefulness. Peer counselors help other students to become self-aware and to develop their academic, social, and personal potential. They can also help newly enrolled students learn about daily school life and academic expectations such as changing classes, participating in extracurricular activities, navigating the cafeteria, and seeking help.

Teachers as advisers

Students are assigned to a teacher who provides guidance in academic and other school-related activities. This is a strategy used to reduce the sense of alienation experienced by many students, especially those enrolled in large schools. For LEP students, assigning teachers who know their language may be particularly helpful. Hispanic students almost unanimously identified "someone caring" as the most important factor that contributed to their academic success.

Parent counseling

Parents receive counseling on how the American school system works and what they can do at home to support the academic progress of their children. Most parents want to help their children succeed, but due to their own limited schooling background, they may need to be provided with specific suggestions, tools, and strategies. Through early intervention, parents and students can begin to believe that higher education is important and within their grasp.

Secondary student mentor/adviser

Secondary students can benefit from having an adviser, a role model, and an advocate who is identified with the school and is on a first-name basis with the family. This person, who is often a migrant education staff member or a bilingual home-school liaison, needs to be conversant with the cultures of both the home and the school and be able to gain the support and trust of the students and their families.

Incentive and Tutorial Approaches

Due to frequent school interruptions, financial responsibilities, limited English proficiency, and other factors, migrant students may have little motivation to attend school regularly, which results in low academic achievement. Both a lack of motivation and academic failure can be addressed by the following activities:

Attendance incentives

Provide awards or prizes to students or homerooms with the most improved or best attendance. Assign chronically absent students to work in the attendance or administrative offices or as group leaders within the classroom to monitor and follow up on classmates' absences.

Teachers and mentors/advocates can also play a key role by monitoring closely each student's attendance and contacting him or her immediately to find out the cause, demonstrating that "someone cares" whether he or she is attending school.

Achievement incentives

Promote measurable, short-term successes that encourage low-achieving students to accept responsibility for their progress, which is regularly monitored, recognized, and rewarded. Techniques may include meeting frequently with counselors, teachers, or mentors to review progress; systematic goal setting; and individual or group tutoring utilizing parents, peers, computers, or community members such as senior citizens, successful graduates, or career mentors.

Environmental incentives

Encourage students to recognize the importance of attending school regularly and graduating as an integral part of attaining economic, career, and personal goals. Activities may include inviting successful graduates or role models to interact with and address the students in class, individual conferences, or workplace settings. Organizing formal and informal activities with local universities, community colleges, or technical schools may also be an effective strategy.

Social incentives

Organize peer support groups or service clubs to encourage a deeper commitment to school. Activities may include agreements between students to attend school regularly, provide academic assistance to each other, and encourage participation in extracurricular activities. Older students or former migrant graduates may serve as volunteers or be employed as mentors.

Work-Related Approaches

Work-related issues, including economic necessity and career and vocational development, should be addressed to encourage migrant students to stay in school. Often, secondary migrant students make the decision to drop out and work to help support their families. They are too inexperienced to realize that by trying to address immediate needs, they are closing the door on a future with broader opportunities for them and their families. Employment realism is an important focus point—learning about potential jobs, their requirements, and salary ranges. When parents are informed that there are options other than dropping out, they frequently support their children's staying in school. Several suggestions are provided below that enlist the support of local businesses and industries:

Career education

Comprehensive programs that provide career exploratory activities at the middle school level and placement and follow-up at the high school level are an important option for students who are work oriented. Implementing such a program entails assessing student needs and talents, developing individual student career guidance plans, establishing time lines, providing career activities, and integrating these activities with the regular academic curriculum. Parental involvement is necessary since parental approval and encouragement affect students' career plans.

Business community-school collaboration

Local businesses sponsor individual middle and high schools or help them implement learning activities by sharing expertise and providing needed supplies. Students may become involved in the host businesses through volunteer work and special events. In addition, some businesses may elect to sponsor a student with financial needs, enabling the student to pursue his education rather than dropping out. The business may offer to provide funds for supplies, uniforms, tools, extracurricular needs, or after-school employment.

Career shadowing

These programs allow students to observe employees who work in a job or career that might be of interest to them. Students learn first-hand the requisite skills, training, education, and potential salary for their career choices.

Career fairs

At these fairs, local business or industry representatives display information to students learning about their career choices. A related activity is a job fair in which recruiters from these businesses provide high school seniors with experience in resume writing, interviewing, and job hunting.

Work-study programs

On the job training (OJT), Work-Study, and apprenticeship programs are increasingly serving as educational programs that provide career options rather than solely as opportunities to fill students' economic needs. A wide variety of programs schedule students for classes part of the day, and they report to a job for the rest of the day. This is a particularly good option for migrant students who are either tempted or forced to quit school in order to contribute financially to their families.

Excerpted from Limited English Proficient Students at Risk: Issues and Prevention Strategies, *R.C. Gingras & R.C. Careaga, 1989, NCBE.*

2. Individual Plan of Action

Have a discussion with your students with the aim of setting goals for the school year, as well as defining some long-term goals that will guide them in the coming years. The discussion should focus on the student's interests, priorities, and educational and career goals. Each IPA should be as detailed as possible in terms of the goals each student chooses and the specific steps that will be required to accomplish them.

Student's Name: ______________________________
Date of Birth: ______________ Target Date of Graduation: ______________
Grade Level for 2000-01 School Year: ______________
Address: ______________________________
Phone: ______________
Parents' Names: ______________________________
Name of High School: ______________________________
Address: ______________________________
Phone: ______________

Goals and Objectives for the 2000-01 School Year

A. Goal: ______________________________
  Objectives:
  1. ______________________________
  2. ______________________________
  3. ______________________________

B. Goal: ______________________________
  Objectives:
  1. ______________________________
  2. ______________________________
  3. ______________________________

Long-Range Goals and Objectives

A. Goal: ______________________________
  Objectives:
  1. ______________________________
  2. ______________________________
  3. ______________________________

B. Goal: ______________________________
  Objectives:
  1. ______________________________
  2. ______________________________
  3. ______________________________

Recommendations for Follow-up

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

Name of Student's School Counselor: ______________ Phone: ______________
Name of Support Person: ______________ Phone: ______________

______________________ ______________________
Student's Signature Parent's Signature

Guidelines for Goal-Setting

In our role as educators, we can be instrumental in providing our students and their parents with the information and tools they'll need to pursue the continuing education option of their choice. The three major areas of concern are:

1. Ensuring that the students are taking the courses that they need to pursue their education goals.
2. Providing the students with the information that they need to apply to the college or program of their choice.
3. Providing the students and their parents with the information that they need to obtain financial aid.

Goal Setting

The Individual Plan of Action (IPA) will include:

1. Goals and Objectives for the 2001-02 school year
2. Long-Range Goals and Objectives
3. Recommendations for Follow-up

Here is an example of an IPA:

1. Goals And Objectives for 2001-02 School Year

A. Goal: Increase GPA to a 3.5.

Objectives:

1. Add 30 minutes daily to study time.
2. Sit in the front of all classes.
3. Seek opportunities for extra credit assignments.
4. Participate more in class particularly in discussions and group activities.

B. Goal: Become involved with school and/or community organizations.

Objectives:

1. Talk with migrant advocate about clubs, teams, or agencies that would suit my talents, interests, and personal schedule.
2. Speak with individuals at the organizations I've selected in order to determine which is the most suitable.
3. Consult with my parents to help make the selection and to obtain their permission.

2. Long-Range Goals and Objectives

A. Goal: Take as many college prep courses as possible.

Objectives:

1. Meet with guidance counselor during the first week of school every year to be assured that requirements are being met.
2. Maintain a 3.5 GPA by attending and participating in all classes and submitting all assignments.
3. Seek help when necessary from classmates and teachers.

B. Goal: Take SAT at least once during senior year.

Objectives:

1. Meet with guidance counselor during the first week of school regarding test dates and applications.
2. Complete and mail necessary documents by deadlines.
3. Purchase prep. books if desired.

Recommendations For Follow-up

1. Monitor student's academic progress through regular teacher conferences.
2. Assist student with accessing and interpreting information about post-secondary education opportunities.
3. Assist student with accessing scholarship/financial aid information and applications.
4. Facilitate and monitor student's participation in school/community organization(s).

3. Strategies Tailored to the Needs of Highly Mobile Students

Flexible School Calendars

Some states with large, mobile populations accommodate students' annual migration pattern by allowing students to complete their assignments and end-of-term exams prior to their migration. A date is designated, approximately one month to six weeks before the end of the traditional school calendar that coincides with families' needs to migrate to other locations to work in agriculture. Affected students are scheduled into an extra period for tutorial or a computer lab, often during lunch or before or after school. They receive assignments early and are responsible for completing those, along with all requirements for their regular courses. Upon successfully completing all work and final exams, they receive an official letter from the school stating that they have completed all necessary assignments and that as of the designated date they are no longer required to attend school and are free to migrate and work.

Flexible Testing Schedules and Locations

In some instances, schools agree to administer end-of-term exams prior to a student's withdrawing close to the end of the grading period. If keeping the contents of a test secure is a concern, the exam administered can be an alternate one.

Some schools elect to collect and send the final exams to the student's next school of enrollment rather than administering the exams early. This can become complicated if the receiving school system is on a different calendar and has already closed for the summer. However, if arrangements are made prior to the student's departure or once the student enrolls in the next school, then exams are sent from the home school, proctored by the new school, and returned to the home school for grading and the awarding of semester credit. This approach is generally used when the student withdraws from the home school too late in the term to be able to adjust to the new school's final days of operation and exam schedule.

If students withdraw prior to the end of the term without notifying the home school, it may be difficult to facilitate the completion of course requirements in a timely manner. In these instances, some schools allow students to complete assignments and take final exams if they return in the fall. If this method is used, students are generally provided with the necessary books and a reasonable amount of time to complete missing assignments and prepare for exams.

For students who do not reside in the state they plan to graduate from during the administration of required standardized or "graduation" testing, various accommodations can be made. Some states offer make-up test dates for absent students. Other states determine where the majority of their students move and train school system personnel in these states to administer the tests. Through interstate coordination, students are located and tests are sent and proctored and then returned to the home school for grading.

Correspondence Courses

Mobile students are provided access to semi-independent correspondence courses, often through a state university or through the migrant education program-sponsored Portable Assisted Study Sequence program, PASS. Correspondence courses are generally used to help students earn additional credits to get back on grade level, make up failed credits if they cannot attend night or summer school, or to complete a course for which they had earned only partial credit prior to moving. In many states PASS courses are provided free-of-charge to migrant students. Not all states accept correspondence course credits, so it is important to assure that the credits earned will count toward the diploma.

It is generally advisable to assign a school employee to administer correspondence courses, setting reasonable time frames for completion. Generally, students who are successful in taking correspondence courses on top of their regular class schedules are motivated, average-achieving students who are passing their current classes. This approach is not as successful with students unable to keep up with their regularly scheduled courses.

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For further information about PASS, contact the National PASS Center at:

BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center
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Mt. Morris, NY 14510-1096
(800)245-5681
FAX (716)658-7969
E-mail: pass@migrant.net

Distance Learning

Technology can be a useful tool for schools with highly mobile populations. Courses can be broadcast via satellite to students residing temporarily out of state. These courses can also be captured on video cassettes and sent to locations without access to satellites. Work units and tests generally accompany broadcast units and are returned to the student's home school for grading and the awarding of credit. They may be courses required by certain states for graduation that are unlikely to be offered in other states, such as state history classes. Texas is an example of a state where the migrant education program has dedicated a lot of time and effort to meeting the needs of their migrating students through its innovative technology-based Project SMART. To find out more about Project SMART, go to their website at: www.tea.state.tx.us/migrant/documents/smartopguide.pdf.

Block Scheduling

Schools must bear in mind the needs of mobile students as they consider moving from traditional to block scheduling. Students should not be penalized by the loss of credits due to a mobile lifestyle. All efforts must be made to match the incoming transfer student's schedule, and withdrawal grades from the previous school must be averaged in to determine final grades. Incoming students with more transfer classes and grades than can be matched in the new schedule may be allowed to complete the partially completed courses through correspondence courses, night school, a computer lab program, or during the next semester. Students entering a traditional schedule from a block, with too few transfer classes and withdrawal grades, may also make up assignments and tests in tutorial programs, in computer labs, at night school, or with correspondence courses.

Alternative Educational Programs

For a fairly small percentage of students, the realities of their lifestyle make graduation from a traditional high school program extremely difficult. Factors such as multiple-year age-grade discrepancy, being the eldest child in a large family, being an integral part of the family economic structure, experiencing frequent school interruptions, being non or extremely limited English proficient, having large gaps in previous educational experiences, and being an unwed or teen parent, all place students at risk of dropping out of school. With timely interventions and referrals to appropriate alternative education programs, these students need not become failures or additions to the growing list of dropout statistics.

Adult, Evening, or Alternative High Schools often provide students unable to attend traditional day school with options to earn a diploma. These programs are often self-paced, enabling students to earn credits at a faster rate. They may also provide supportive services such as childcare. Factors to consider when referring students to these programs are the number of existing credits accrued toward a diploma, age, maturity, and motivation level. Students in these programs are generally considered as adults and self-starters; therefore, immature, unmotivated students may be more successful in a structured, traditional academic program.

Vocational or technical programs may be viable options for students not seeking a high school diploma or those wishing to learn a trade in addition to meeting graduation requirements. Usually offered both during the day and evening, these programs provide students with opportunities to learn important job skills. Upon successful completion, a certificate is awarded, and employment placement services may be available.

The High School Equivalency Program (HEP) is for migrant students who are at least 16 years old and who are not enrolled in school. The program helps them obtain their high school equivalency certificate and continue on to postsecondary education, job training, or the workplace. Students reside on campus at one of 20 colleges and universities around the country and programs may be residential or commuter. GED exams may be offered in English or

(continued page 202)

What Choices Do High School Students Have?

Students may need more than four years to complete high school. College is not an impossible dream in the U.S. There are often scholarships available. Community colleges are relatively low cost, and there are many types of student loans.

Some common choices are:

Option	Advantages	Disadvantages
High School Diploma	• Get a good job • Enter colleges of two or four years or technical school • Be bilingual	
GED	• Enter most two-year colleges • Get a job requiring manual labor • Be bilingual	• No advancement
Technical School • Careers in: Automotive Carpentry Masonry Electronics Computers Etc.	• Learn specific job skills • Get actual job experience during high school • Be bilingual	• Limits choices and prospect for advancement

¿Que Opciones Tienen los Alumnos de la Escuela Preparatoria?

Es posible que un alumno esté en "high school" por más de cuatro años para ganar los créditos necesarios para obtener un diploma. Ir a la universidad no es sueño imposible en los Estados Unidos. Por ejemplo, hay una gran variedad de becas que ayudan con el coste de una universidad.

Unas opciones son:

Opciones	Ventajas	Desventajas
Diploma de "High School"	• Obtener un buen trabajo • Ir a una universidad de dos o cuatro años o a una escuela técnica • Entrar en las fuerzas armadas •Ser bilingue	
GED (Certificado que se gana independientemente)	• Oportunidad de ir a una universidad de dos años • Obtener un trabajo manual •Ser bilingue	• Difícil de adelantar en el trabajo
Escuela Técnica • Se ofrecen carreras de: mecánico carpintero electricista cosmetólogo operador de computadoras	• Dominar una carrera técnica • Tener experiencia en un trabajo verdadero durante "high school" •Ser bilingue	• Limita las opciones de cambiar trabajo o adelantar

Spanish. Student factors that lead to greater chances of success include an entrance reading level no lower than sixth grade, emotional maturity, high motivation, and an ability to be freed up from traditional family or financial responsibilities while attending the HEP program. For students who test below the recommended reading level, remediation in a local Adult Basic Education or literacy program may prepare them for future success at HEP. Some HEP programs provide support services such as tutoring, counseling, follow-up, and stipends. The HEP program has a 70 percent GED completion rate, and 29 percent of students enroll in postsecondary institutions (Biennial Evaluation Report, 1995).

High School Equivalency Program (HEP) Projects and Contacts for 1999-2000

New HEP programs are constantly being added, so please check with the office of Migrant Education for an updated list (202-260-1164).

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Excerpt from Article, "Against All Odds"

(Subject: Program in Dropout Prevention for Hispanic Students)

Beginning in 1990-91, in a Los Angeles school district, 100 students in the treatment group received the ALAS (Achievement for Latinos through Academic Success) program's intervention services for all three years of middle school. One hundred students in the control group received the traditional secondary school program.

In designing the program, the researchers set out to have interventions address the four spheres of influence on students' lives and school performance—teachers, school, parents, and other students.

ALAS has three main focuses: (1) problem solving with students and families; (2) close monitoring—even hour-by-hour—of attendance, tardiness, homework, grades, behavior, and notes home; and (3) training for parents in everything from child-rearing skills to how to get what they need from school officials and teachers.

In doing so, ALAS has tried to overcome the barriers thrown up by the school culture, the student culture, and the prevailing Mexican-American culture. "The goal is to empower both the parents and the kids," project director Larson says. And to help them "have the skills to achieve a different vision for the future."

Now completing the fourth year of the five-year project, the ALAS staff can document success after three full school years. Just five percent of the ALAS students, compared with 25 percent of the control students, were absent from school one-fourth of the time or more in ninth grade. During ninth grade, 15 percent of the ALAS students, compared with 31 percent of the control students, failed English. In other subjects too, ALAS students failed at rates much lower than the control students.

Not a single ALAS student dropped out during middle school compared with 13 percent of the control group who didn't stay in school.

A school's culture and policies can also push its dropout rate up. Researchers identify several ways to change schools to make them better able to serve at-risk students such as Hispanics. Several experts suggest turning large, anonymous schools into smaller units—schools within schools. Researchers have found that Hispanic students respond well to smaller school communities. Also, Hispanic students in bilingual programs—which effectively function as smaller school communities—have a much higher rate of staying in school than their peers.

Guidance and career counseling in many schools foster "the lack of connection between the world of work and the world of study." "It's like leading double lives for a lot of these students. They work and they go to school, but it doesn't meet." Neither the teacher nor the employer tries to draw on the student's experiences in the other sector. One researcher looks to apprenticeship programs as one solution especially helpful to Hispanics. "Already Hispanics do need money for their family income, or at least to take care of their own needs. They are already working to a great extent, so why not try to do more with that?"

Also, more emphasis should be placed on thinking about careers, not just a job to make money. If a student is working at a hamburger joint, he ought to be thinking about managing the restaurant someday. Often, children of working-class families or working-poor families just don't know what it takes to be a nurse. If you hear a young woman say she wants to be a nurse, and you ask her if she has taken a biology class or advanced math class, it is likely that she has not.

Recommendations from the Hispanic Dropout Project (1998)

1. Frequent (in some cases, hourly, but generally, daily or weekly) and ongoing (sustained throughout the school year) monitoring of the student's school performance is suggested.
2. Close teamwork with parents is recommended, including parent training in being an effective educational consumer and raising a teenager.
3. A case manager is essential to coordinating services provided and linking school, home, and community together into a cohesive structure for the student.
4. The intervention must respond to the individual needs of the student and must be sufficiently flexible to personalize the educational experience.
5. A social cognitive problem-solving approach that teaches the student and parents how to effectively handle short- and long-term challenges is highly effective in making high-risk youth less impulsive, more independent, and goal-oriented.
6. The intervention must actively attempt to change the student's expectations and vision of the future probably from one of failure and hopelessness to one of hopefulness and possibility. For more on this topic, see the *Handbook of Hope* (Academic Press) by Rick Snyder, who teaches at the University of Kansas.

Check out the many informative features of the Hispanic Dropout Project at *www.ncbe.gwu.edu/miscpubs/hdp/index.htm*

4. But What Can I Do? I'm Only A Teacher!!!

When you get to know your ELL students personally and learn a bit about the students' journey, their stories of how they and their family came to be here, and how they live and work, a greater understanding and respect is developed for all. Below are suggestions for addressing some of the concerns described in Chapter 2.

- Help mobile students by assigning a "partial" or withdrawal grade when a student transfers. This grade is based on the work and grades generated during the time enrolled, regardless of the length of enrollment. The class schedule and averaged grades at time of withdrawal will enable the receiving school to properly place the student. The new school will average the partial grades awarded by the previous school(s) along with the current grades earned during the remainder of the grading period to generate a final grade.
- Be aware that students are entitled to their high school credits earned in other countries. Transcripts should be translated and credit for the appropriate courses awarded. Students or family members may be helpful in translating school transcripts.
- Graduation requirements are increasingly complex. For students with highly mobile lifestyles, partial knowledge of English as a second and not fully acquired language, and parents who may have little formal education, graduation requirements seem as though they are written in a foreign language!
- Incorporate graduation requirements, student code of conduct, postsecondary opportunities, and other important life skills into lesson plans. Those documents can serve as the content for reading, problem solving, writing, questioning, debating, etc.
- Teach students how to track their own credits on guidance sheets, updating them every grading period, and covering the same information during parent conferences, meetings, home visits, and phone calls.
- Talk with students and parents regularly about the importance of education, regular school attendance, exams, proper withdrawal, and postsecondary planning.
- Establish a system to follow up on frequently absent students.
- During the first two weeks for a new student, require that he or she complete only 75 percent of the current assignments, allowing the student to adjust and begin tackling any important missed assignments which need to be made up.
- To enhance educational continuity, call previous schools for further clarification on course of study, transcript, etc. The local Migrant Program may be of assistance with this.
- Send end-of-course exams and assignments needed to complete course and earn credit to student's next school for completion.
- Be available to proctor exams and assignments sent from student's previous schools enabling the completion of courses and receipt of credit.
- Provide take-home textbooks and resources for students who may need or want more time to explore and digest the material.
- Arrange for tutoring and other needed resources to be available before and after school and during the day (lunch hour) for students who cannot come to school early or stay late.
- Find within the existing system, or create, policies and procedures that will lessen the disruption that occurs when mobile students must relocate.

Helping Daniel to Graduate

(Remember Daniel? You first heard about him in Chapter 2, page 23.)

Here is a recap of Daniel's story:

Daniel turned 17 during his second year of high school. He had earned only five out of a possible 9.7 credits, resulting in his being reclassified as a freshman. Daniel migrated with his family each June to Virginia, returning to Florida in late October. He was retained in third grade due to his lack of English proficiency and again in seventh grade because of poor grades. Although his family's annual migration pattern often resulted in late enrollments, school interruptions, and poor attendance, these factors did not affect his grade promotion seriously until he entered high school.

Daniel enrolled in school in Virginia each fall, but he attended for such a short time that his teachers found it hard to grant him credit for the work done while in their classes. He then would return to Florida with no transfer grades to be averaged with the remaining semester grades. One year, he was placed in a course that he had already passed, causing him to lose one-half unit of credit. U.S. History offered in ninth grade in Florida was called American History and offered in tenth grade in Virginia. Although the error was brought to light, his guidance counselor was unable to grant him credit for passing the same course twice.

Finding himself several years older than his classmates, with little hope of ever catching up, Daniel began to seriously consider dropping out of school.

A Teacher Can Make a Difference!

As Daniel fell further behind, his attendance worsened. Some teachers felt there were too many odds against him, but his math teacher decided to intervene. When referrals to the Attendance Officer did not result in improvement, Mr. Dunn had the Spanish teacher write a note to Daniel's parents in Spanish. Due to continued poor attendance, Mr. Dunn asked Migrant Program staff to translate on a home visit to Daniel's parents.

Mr. Dunn brought a copy of Daniel's transcript to the home visit. He discussed graduation requirements, credits earned and needed, the attendance policy, and the importance of enrolling in school while migrating. He provided the family with copies of everything and a credit-tracking sheet to be completed each semester. He called staff in the school Daniel attended while migrating and sent copies of Florida's graduation requirements, Daniel's transcript, his current schedule, and recommended schedule for the following year.

Mr. Dunn then tried to reconstruct the dates enrolled, assignments and tests completed, and grades earned during the six weeks Daniel attended school in Virginia. He spoke with the three teachers who had not submitted withdrawal grades, asking them to review the work Daniel had completed while in their classes, even though his attendance was sporadic. Although Daniel had been enrolled an average of only 21 days, his teachers were able to compile grades for the work done and assign a withdrawal grade.

Even after securing transfer grades, Daniel was still behind his classmates in Florida. Mr. Dunn collected assignments from the other teachers and allowed Daniel to make up work during lunch. He also arranged for after-school tutoring by the Honor Society to help Daniel adjust to his new algebra class. By mid-semester, all assignments were made up, and Daniel had passing grades in all his classes, earning all his credits for the first time!

When Daniel migrated in June, he took a copy of his transcript, recommended schedule, and Mr. Dunn's phone number. Although unable to attend school daily due to financial responsibilities, Daniel communicated regularly with his teachers and attended tutoring to make up missed assignments. Daniel did not graduate until he was almost 20 years old, but because of his perseverance and the support of his family and a very special teacher named Mr. Dunn, he received his hard-won diploma.

Case Studies

Dora

Dora is a tenth-grader who wants to study to be a nurse after she graduates. Her grade point average is about a 3.5, and she is very motivated to learn. She still requires some ESL assistance because she has only been in the U.S. for three years, and many of her courses are difficult for her. Her family is only marginally supportive of her aspirations to be a nurse—they wonder if she wouldn't rather find a nice young man, get married, and have a baby. They don't understand why she feels so strongly about pursuing a career after high school.

Extend a Helping Hand

As Dora's teacher, you can support her by

- Providing Dora with opportunities to research and report on her interests
- Referring Dora to available tutoring services
- Inviting her parents to school to express your support of Dora's aspirations
- Setting up an appointment with Dora's guidance counselor to ensure that she is taking the right courses

David

David is a tenth-grader who has been struggling in school ever since he arrived in the U.S. three years ago. He would like to graduate high school and perhaps attend some kind of vocational school. His attendance is erratic, and he doesn't always complete his homework and/or study for tests. His teachers (including his ESL teacher) sense that David is filled with untapped potential. They say that if he could only learn to believe in himself and apply himself more diligently to his studies that he could really go places. All of his older brothers have dropped out of school and David—when he becomes discouraged—sometimes talks of doing the same.

Extend a Helping Hand

As David's teacher, you can support him by

- Talking to David about his absences and erratic performance to determine if there is a problem you can help with (for example, he may have an after-school job that depletes his energy, or he may be struggling with English more than he is willing to admit)
- Making yourself available to David to answer questions, assist with homework, or help him review for tests outside of class time (before and after school, during lunch)
- Referring David to his guidance counselor and suggesting a field trip to a vocational school
- Allowing students to study in groups for tests

Claudia

Claudia is a tenth-grader who has lived in the U.S. on and off for most of her life. She is completely bilingual and applies herself in school. Claudia has had difficulty piecing together credits because her family moves frequently. For example, in her ninth-grade year, she didn't earn all of the credits she should have because her family went to Mexico for two months during the second semester, and the school wouldn't give her partial credit for attending from April through June. Claudia would really like to study to be a lawyer and help her people, but she is worried that she won't be able to get enough credits to graduate anytime soon.

Extend a Helping Hand

As Claudia's teacher, you can support her by

- Explaining and reinforcing the attendance policy both in class and during a parent meeting
- Allowing Claudia to make up assignments and tests that were missed while she was in Mexico
- Providing some sort of real-life experience as part of your curriculum to support her interest, such as a guest speaker or a job shadowing experience
- Referring Claudia to her guidance counselor regarding her problem with accruing credits

Felipe

Felipe is a conscientious and talented eleventh-grader who excels in all areas. He has a 3.8 grade point average and is the star of his soccer team. He intends to go to college but needs help with financial assistance as well as the other hoops that he must jump through in order to apply to a university. He is sometimes overwhelmed by the amount of paperwork that his counselor tells him will be required, and his family can't help him with any of it.

Extend a Helping Hand

As Felipe's teacher, you can support him by

- Making yourself available to help Felipe with college papers outside of class time
- Allowing Felipe to incorporate some of his college paperwork requirements into assignments for your class, such as writing the essay for his application(s)
- Informing Felipe of any help available for college applicants, such as post-secondary seminars, financial aid seminars, and assemblies with college scouts
- Discussing Felipe's needs and interests with his guidance counselor

References

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Secada et al., (1998). *No More Excuses: The Final Report of the Hispanic Dropout Project.* U.S. Department of Education, available at *www.ncbe.gwu.edu*

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Chapter 11 At-a-Glance

Chapter 11 contains information on how you can help to inspire and encourage your students to set high goals for themselves once they have met the challenge of graduating from high school. Applying to college and paying for it are two of the principal roadblocks to greater participation of Hispanics in post-secondary education. As educators, you can help in both of these realms, but your main contributions consist of having high expectations for your students and helping them to believe in their potential.

Students who succeed in attaining their educational goals almost always cite the importance of a "mentor/advisor" who took a personal interest in them and guided them. Remember that most of your migrant students have parents—many of whom have less than a sixth-grade education—who are unfamiliar with the many educational opportunities available in the U.S.

There is information on another national program called CAMP (College Assistance Migrant Program, page 217), an option that provides your students with a great deal of support during their freshman year in college. Attending community college is an increasingly appealing option for many migrant students who can take courses and work their way through this more affordable alternative.

There is a translated document called "Your Child Can Go to College!" (pages 226-227). It is a simple explanation for parents that outlines ways in which they can support their children's aspirations to attend college.

The final section of Chapter 11 includes a list of scholarships that are targeted to boost the participation of Hispanics in post-secondary education. There is a great deal of attention being paid to Hispanics recently as the educational establishment strives to increase the opportunities available to this under-represented group of students.

In order for migrant students to succeed, they and their families need knowledge of available educational opportunities and support from high school and postsecondary staff in identifying and overcoming obstacles.

—Susan Morse

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CHAPTER II:

Postsecondary Options: How Teachers Can Help

To succeed in college, migrant students must (1) complete high school with adequate preparation for college, (2) apply and be accepted to college, (3) find scholarships or other funding to attend, and (4) progress through college to graduation. Being a migrant complicates these basic steps because of frequent moves, poverty, gaps in previous schooling, and language barriers. Migrant students also confront societal and institutional barriers due to ethnic differences and community isolation. Despite these challenges, some migrant students attend and graduate from colleges and universities.

Data regarding migrant college entrance and completion rates are limited because few programs track students beyond high school graduation. Far more information is available about Hispanic students in general. These studies are relevant because most migrants are Hispanics. One study revealed Hispanic enrollment in higher education doubled between 1984 and 1995, the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. But only 45 percent of these students enrolled in four-year institutions. Hispanics are still under-represented (by about 50 percent) in postsecondary institutions overall (Carter & Wilson, 1997).

Despite steady gains in the number of postsecondary degrees conferred, Hispanics remain under-represented in this category also. In 1993, while Hispanics comprised about ten percent of the U.S. population, they earned only 5.9 percent of associate degrees, 3.9 percent of bachelor's degrees, 2.9 percent of master's degrees, and four percent of professional degrees (Carter & Wilson, 1996).

Some of the most valuable lessons teachers can impart beyond academic knowledge are those of motivation, inspiration, determination, resilience, desire, and a love of learning. A student equipped with these character traits, along with the help of someone who can sort through the complexities of postsecondary opportunities, has a chance of realizing all that a bright future has to offer.

Teachers often know their students better and are more accessible to them than anyone in the school system. Many teachers have navigated the maze of postsecondary options for themselves and their own children. By extending a hand to students whose parents may not have had these experiences, they are providing young people the opportunity to fulfill their potentials.

Options and Resources to Explore

Following is a list of options and resources to explore as you and your student travel across content areas on your journey beyond high school walls.

1. Compare and contrast post-secondary options such as college, military, on-the-job training programs, vocational/technical school
    - cost
    - financial assistance available
    - location
    - size and resources
    - length of study
    - degree/certification
    - employment outlook
    - salary range
    - promotional ladder
    - fringe benefits
    - travel
2. Examine "Program of Study" (small appliance repair, social work, computer programming, landscaping, etc.) entrance requirements, cost, length of study, resulting degree, certification process
3. Administer interest inventory/aptitude analysis
4. Explore fields of interest using the Internet, media, and other technological resources
5. Organize job shadowing experiences
6. Practice job-seeking skills—classified ads, applications, telephoning, résumés, reference letters, interviews, personal appearance, follow-up, leaving a job
7. Invite guest speakers and practitioners (including parents) to your class/school
8. Establish relationships with local Chamber of Commerce, civic groups, and business partnerships
9. Institute a career mentoring program
10. Coordinate a job fair
11. Arrange field trips to postsecondary programs
12. Senior Portfolio: essay, letter of recommendation, résumé, test scores, transcript, etc.
13. Performance-based individual and group career presentations

College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP)

CAMP provides discretionary grants to institutions of higher education (IHE) or other non-profit organizations in cooperation with an IHE to offer tutoring, counseling, health services, assistance with special admissions, and some financial assistance to enable migrant youth to successfully complete the first year of postsecondary education. Students are also assisted with obtaining financial aid to help with the remainder of their undergraduate academic careers.

New CAMP programs are constantly being added, so please check with the Office of Migrant Education for an updated list (202-260-1164).

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2. Promoting Leadership Qualities

Youth Leadership Institutes

Whether the program is a six-week residential summer model or one offering ongoing seminars and periodic weekend retreats, these Institutes provide intensive, challenging, activity-based experiences for tomorrow's leaders. Emphasis is placed on exploring values, goals, strategies, and timelines for pursuing future education and training opportunities. Career interests are also explored. Many Institutes involve students in a community service project. Preparatory and follow-up projects and activities in the home district are generally a strong component of Leadership Institutes, providing students with support and direction throughout the school year.

Summer College Residential Programs

These programs on college campuses are funded by the migrant education program, other federal programs, or university resources. Chances for success increase because migrant middle and high school students live on college campuses far from home and engage in college activities and courses. In some regions, an advisor facilitates applications and scholarships to colleges.

Business Partnerships

The potential for supportive interactions with community partners is limitless. Businesses have a very real stake in the quality of education students destined for the job market receive. By thinking outside of the activities in which business partners have been traditionally involved, innovative, unorthodox ways to involve partners surface. Partners may assist in somewhat traditional ways by providing funds for various activities or particular students in need. They may become involved in direct assistance such as tutoring, guest speaking, hosting a job shadowing or OJT placement, or conducting practice interviews. With their daily involvement in business and commerce, these individuals offer students a window to the future through the eyes of various professions. Some such programs are offered through local industry councils, 4-H Clubs, or summer youth grants.

3. Postsecondary Educational Options

Vocational/Technical Schools

For students wishing to enter the work force relatively soon after graduation, these job skill-oriented programs show tangible results.

Students specialize in studying a work skill such as welding, nursing, computers, paint & body work, etc. Many students complete their program of studies within a year, receive official certification, and are placed in jobs by the school's student services department. While vocational/technical programs are skill-oriented, students must possess a reading level of approximately eighth grade in order to read the technical manuals that accompany the classroom lecture and hands-on experience. In addition to skill-specific instruction, students strengthen other skills such as language, grammar, mathematics, and computer literacy, which is often an integral component of vocational/technical programs. In addition, advisors are generally provided to help students prepare for a future beyond school walls. They are available to help students pursue further education, secure financial resources, or enter the job force.

Community or Junior College

This option is for students wishing to attend a smaller, short-term postsecondary school with the possibility of being prepared to enter the work force within two years or apply to a four-year institution as a transfer student.

Many states offer preparation of comparable quality to the first two years of education at colleges and universities through their community and junior college programs. Students wishing to make the transition to postsecondary less dramatic may choose to begin at a community college. These systems are generally smaller, presenting less bureaucracy and more personalized services. Few community colleges provide housing, enabling students to continue living at home, which is generally less expensive.

Costs at junior colleges are significantly less than at universities, sometimes as much as one third of the cost per credit hour. Many programs provide automatic acceptance of all local high school graduates. Regardless of acceptance, students must still be assessed for placement in the appropriate program of study. Some English language learners who have yet to fully acquire English may be placed in non-credit-earning remedial classes or labs at the beginning of their college education.

Professor/student ratio is much smaller than at major universities where many freshman classes are offered in large lecture halls. In a smaller setting, students are apt to receive more attention, assistance, and personalized instruction. For second language learners still acquiring the English skills, this setting has proven to be a successful transition from the protective environment of high school to the free, liberal setting of college.

For students wishing to earn a two-year college diploma and then enter the job force, the Associate of Science, A.S., degree may be appropriate. Students generally specialize in a program of study focused on a particular career skill, such as business procedures, hospitality, police academy, computer analysis, etc. While the importance and use of basic skills, such as communication and computation, are always stressed, the curriculum is presented through the lens of the specialty area being pursued.

Other students prepare to enter the university for their junior and senior years after completing community college. These students spend the first two years studying advanced levels of English, math, social and physical science, and other general coursework. They will not specialize until their junior year.

College or University

For students wishing to complete a four-year degree, enrollment in a college or university, or as a transfer student after attending community college, are both viable options. University entrance requirements may be more rigorous and less flexible than those for community colleges, thus the application process should begin early. A well-rounded college preparatory high school curriculum is integral to the foundation that helps determine success at the university level. Students who are promising candidates for four-year colleges are those who successfully completed advanced math and science courses in high school, earned college credits through Advanced Placement and Honors* courses, and are well on their way to being bilingual.

* *Many high school teachers serving as guides or mentors for ELL students will want to promote the placement of these students in Advanced Placement (AP) and Honors courses whenever appropriate. Their limited English proficiency should not exclude them from the opportunity to earn college credits while attending high school. Many of these students received a high level of education in their native countries and need some primary language support and instructional and assessment modifications (see Chapter 3) in order to ensure that the content is comprehensible to them.*

Planning for Postsecondary Education during High School

You are just starting your high school career and probably thinking, "Gosh, four more years before graduation. I have plenty of time to think about what I want to do when I finish high school." Before you know it, four years will have gone by. If you do not start preparing for your post-high-school years, you might later discover that you have to backtrack. Now is the best time to strategize about how you will get from Point A to Point B. What you do for the next four years will impact whether you get accepted into college or not. You need to start building your "track record" as early as possible. Following are some suggestions:

1. Make an appointment to meet with your guidance counselor and let him/her know of your plans to attend college. Inquire about the high school course requirements for a college track student.

2. Establish a year-by-year plan of action for grades 9–12. Know which classes are required for graduation from high school as well as entrance to college. Include this plan in your newly created file.

3. Start getting involved in extracurricular activities, such as clubs, student government, athletics, community organization, church groups, etc. Participate in activities you enjoy.

4. If you don't read for enjoyment, start reading. It will help build your vocabulary and reading comprehension. This will be very important when it's time to take college entrance exams.

5. Don't forget career exploration.

Source: *Stepping On Up*

Planning for Postsecondary Education during High School

Grade 10

1. Meet with your guidance counselor to review your plan of action and make sure you are on track.
2. Talk to university/college representatives at your school's college fair.
3. Continue adding to your file copies of test scores, report cards, letters of appreciation, recommendation, or achievement.
4. Continue your involvement in activities and career exploration.
5. Take the PSAT for practice.

Grade 11

1. Meet with your guidance counselor to review your progress.
2. Register for and take the SAT/ACT exams for practice.
3. Gather information on the colleges/universities you would consider.
5. Start researching for grants, loans, and scholarships available federally, statewide, and locally. Make a list of all those for which you could apply. Include deadlines on your list.
6. Retake the PSAT exam if you would like to be considered for the National Merit Scholarship Program. The National Merit Scholarship Program gives scholarships to top-ranking students in the nation.

Grade 12

1. Meet with your guidance counselor to review your progress.
2. Establish a timeline indicating deadlines for ACT/SAT exams, college/university applications, financial aid application, and scholarships. Make sure you meet the deadlines.
3. Narrow your college/university choices to three or four and apply. Most colleges/universities have an application fee ranging from $15.00 to $25.00. However, the fee can be waived if you qualify.
4. The file you established during your high school year should be beneficial when it comes to completing the paperwork for college.
5. Continue adding to your file copies of all the paperwork you complete or submit to colleges/universities.
6. Communication between you and the colleges/universities you are applying to is of utmost importance. Be persistent and call them if you do not hear from them about your admissions status or financial aid status.
7. Remember college admissions and financial aid are separate processes.
8. If you are accepted to more than one college/university, the biggest decision is to choose the one you will attend.

Planning for Technical / Vocational School

If you think college is not for you, then you might want to consider a technical/vocational school. There are many careers one can pursue, such as auto mechanics, nursing, drafting, court reporting, etc. Programs of study available at technical/vocational schools vary from a couple of months to a couple of years. You can begin some programs while completing your junior and senior year of high school. This allows you to simultaneously earn a high school diploma and a certificate for a trade.

Grade 9

1. Meet with your guidance counselor and inquire about your interest in pursuing a vocational track. Find out if your school offers the option of entering a technical/ vocational program of study during your junior year.
2. Establish a year-by-year plan of action for grades 9–12 of the classes required. Include the plan of action in your newly created file.
3. Get involved in clubs such as FHA/HERO, HOSA, FBLA, and VICA. Each club has a special focus on careers.

Grade 10

1. Meet with your guidance counselor to review your plan of action and make sure you are on track.
2. Continue your involvement in activities and career exploration.
3. If your school has the option to start a vocational/technical program of study, make sure you register for it before the end of the school year.

Grade 11

1. Meet with your guidance counselor to review your progress.
2. If available, start a vocational/technical program of study.

Grade 12

1. Meet with your guidance counselor to review your progress.
2. If your program of study is offered at various vocational/technical schools, apply to more than one because sometimes there are waiting lists.
3. Explore financial aid, including the Pell Grant, work study, scholarships, and loans available for your program of study. Meet all application deadlines.
4. Inquire about various agencies/programs, such as JTPA, JTPA/Migrant, and Equity. Learn how they can help you while you are enrolled at a technical/vocational school and after your completion.
5. Make arrangements to take entrance exams required by the vocational/technical schools.
6. Visit vocational/technical schools. Talk to individuals enrolled in the program of study of your choice.

Fernando's Story

Fernando is the oldest of five children. He came to the U.S. with his parents from Mexico in search of work in the 1980s. His parents established a migration pattern between Texas and Michigan and then back to Mexico. Fernando's four siblings were raised on the farm with grandparents until the family had earned enough to bring all members to a small agricultural community in central Florida. Fernando had not received formal ESL services until he entered ninth grade. Already a strong, disciplined, accomplished student, Fernando blossomed even further as he gained proficiency in English with the targeted assistance of the ESL teacher.

In Fernando's case, his teacher recognized, encouraged, and channeled Fernando's talents toward a productive future. His teacher provided the information and opportunities to foster exploration and growth. There were times when Fernando experienced difficulties with his schedule due to migration and occasions when he was placed in low-level courses due to his lack of English proficiency. But with the help of his teacher, he worked through difficulties and obtained a rigorous college preparatory high school education and overall experience.

It was after leaving the small, supportive setting of high school that Fernando's real problems began. Although he and his family began the lengthy procedure of petitioning for citizenship years ago, by the time Fernando graduated with honors from the largest high school in the district, he was still undocumented.

Fernando's teacher had him address a civic group that, after hearing of Fernando's situation, undertook the generous project of funding his education at the local community college over the next two years. Fernando was not banned from attending the state-sponsored school. However, despite the fact that he had attended high school in the same district for the previous four years and that he and his family had contributed to the community in numerous ways, Fernando was charged $2,500.00 per semester as an out-of-state student. While the civic group continued to support Fernando, his teacher stayed in communication with the generous donors, keeping them well-advised of Fernando's accomplishments and plans.

Fernando married Esmeralda, a former migrant born in Texas. She was a junior studying elementary education at the local university. Fernando needed to secure employment before he went in front of the immigration board. His teacher hired him as a part-time peer advisor in the after-school program. He worked 19 hours a week serving as a tutor, role model, and educational reinforcement for migrant middle school youth while completing his bachelor's degree.

Fernando completed his degree and has worked as an accountant ever since. He currently works in the accounting department for one of the largest employers in a several county area—a citrus juice producing plant where he used to sort and pack fruit. When asked about influential forces in his life, Fernando often cites his teacher. He may have had the potential, the talent, even the desire, but it was his teacher who provided the support, guidance, and know-how enabling him to realize his potential.

** ***You know many Fernandos, whether you realize it or not. You are in a powerful position, one you can use to positively intervene in the life of a young person who may not otherwise realize his or her potential.***

Teachers Should be Prepared to Go the Extra Mile:

- Be available and non-judgmental
- Regularly check student's class schedule against graduation requirements
- Track credits and grade point average (GPA) each grading period
- Encourage challenging, college preparatory course of study
- Promote participation in extra-curricular activities and community service projects
- Provide modeling and concrete examples of life skills that will prove useful in the future
- Funnel information regarding postsecondary opportunities to students, using material as the vehicle in content lessons
- Communicate the importance of postsecondary preparation to students' parents, beginning at an early age
- Promote the accomplishments of ESL students throughout the academic and larger community
- Sponsor fund raising activities to establish scholarships
- Seek and promote scholarship opportunities
- Seek and promote other public and private funding sources for student's postsecondary endeavors

Your Child Can Go to College!

I thought that I might get a job and help my family right away. My mom said, "No, you go to school."

—Florida A & M University student

Your child is thinking about college. GOOD! Going to college will help your child to have a good life. Jobs in the United States are changing very quickly. For most good jobs, your child will need more than a high school education.

Here's how you can help

1) Check on high school courses

Help your child work with teachers and counselors to complete the courses needed to enter and succeed in college. Your child will need courses in English, math, science, and social studies. Foreign languages and computer science will also be helpful. Encourage your child to earn good grades.

2) Attend workshops/parent meetings

Many schools offer training for parents on college education for their children. If you learn of such a program, attend.

3) Learn about colleges

Whom do you know who has gone to college? Ask for their ideas. Is there a college campus nearby that you might visit with your child? It need not be the one the child is thinking about entering. Walk around the campus. Go into the library and administration building. You and your child can get a better idea of college.

4) Talk

Ask your child about college plans. Show that you are interested in those plans.

5) Listen

Probably the most important help you can give is to listen to your child's thoughts. Your child knows college is a very big step. Your support is valuable.

Finances

Yes, finances are a big concern. But, if your child is a citizen of the U.S. or has legal residency, he or she can probably get help.

1) College money

Both federal and state governments help students with college costs. Colleges often have their own money to assist students. Private funds also can help—especially if a student is still in the process of obtaining a visa.

2) Applications

You and your child will need to fill out applications for financial aid. For federal aid, you should apply as soon as possible after January 1st of the year your child will enter college. The college financial office and high school guidance office will have applications. You many need to fill out other applications for funding.

3) Questions

Ask your child's guidance counselor for help.

Yes, your child can go to college!

- Your child will be able to study for a career.
- Your child will be able to support a family.
- Your child will be able to help the community.

My father always taught me how important it was to receive an education, any type of education, to live a decent life.

—Stanford University student

¡Su Hijo/a Puede Ir a La Universidad!

Pensé que podría encontrar un trabajo y ponerme a ayudar a mi familia. Mi madre dijo, "No, usted va a la escuela."

—Estudiante de la Universidad de A & M, Florida

Su hijo/a está pensando en la universidad. ¡MUY BIEN! Ir a la universidad le permitirá tener una vida más agradable. Los trabajos en los Estados Unidos están cambiando muy rápido. Para la mayoría de los trabajos, su hijo/a necesitará más que la escuela secundaria o preparatoria.

Usted puede ayudar así

1) Infórmese de las clases de la escuela secundaria (preparatoria)

Ayude a su hijo/a a trabajar con los maestros y consejeros para completar los cursos necesarios para entrar y tener éxito en la universidad. Va a necesitar cursos de inglés, matemáticas, ciencias, y estudios sociales. Idiomas extranjeros y computadoras también ayudarán. Anímele a sacar buenas notas.

2) Asista a cursillos y reuniones de padres

Muchas escuelas ofrecen entrenamiento para padres sobre educación universitaria para los hijos. Si se entera de tales programas, asista.

3) Infórmese de universidades

¿A quién conoce que fue a una universidad? Hágale preguntas. ¿Hay una universidad cerca que pueda visitar con su hijo/a? No tiene que ser el que ha elegido. Caminen por el campus. Visiten la biblioteca y las oficinas de la administración. Pueden formarse una idea de lo que es una universidad.

4) Hable

Pregúntele a su hijo/a sobre sus planes para la universidad. Muestre interés en esos planes.

5) Escuche

Probablemente la ayuda más importante que pueda prestar es escuchar las ideas de su hijo/a. Él/Ella sabe que la universidad es un paso muy importante. Su apoyo es valioso.

Finanzas

Sí, las finanzas son una preocupación grande. Pero, si su hijo/a es ciudadano de los Estados Unidos o tiene residencia legal, probablemente podrá conseguir ayuda.

1) Dinero para la universidad

El gobierno federal y el del estado ayudan a estudiantes con los costos de la universidad. A menudo, las universidades tienen su propio dinero para asistir a estudiantes. Fondos privados también pueden ayudar—especialmente si un alumno no ha podido conseguir una visa.

2) Solicitudes

Usted y su hijo/a necesitarán rellenar solicitudes para la ayuda financiera. Para la ayuda federal deben hacer la solicitud tan pronto como sea posible después del primero de enero del año de entrada en la universidad. La oficina de finanzas de la universidad y la de consejeros de la escuela secundaria tendrán formularios. Puede necesitar otros formularios para otros fondos.

3) Preguntas

Pídale ayuda al consejero de su hijo/a.

¡Sí, su hijo/a puede ir a la universidad!

- Será capaz de estudiar una carrera.
- Será capaz de apoyar a una familia.
- Será capaz de ayudar a la comunidad.

Mi padre siempre me enseñó lo importante que era recibir una educación, cualquier clase, para vivir una vida decente.

—Estudiante en la Universidad de Stanford

Student Financial Aid Information

A lot of attention is being paid at the federal and state levels to boosting the school retention and achievement of Hispanic students. Among those efforts are increased federal grants to "Hispanic-serving colleges and universities." These schools enroll at least 25 percent Hispanics at either the graduate or undergraduate level. To find out which schools have been particularly successful with recruiting and educating Hispanics, log onto the website for the Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities at **www.hacu.net**.

In order to most effectively plan your search, contact the necessary organizations up to a year in advance. Your first step should be to decide on a few schools and contact their financial aid offices, asking about any scholarships or financial aid they offer to minority students. Be sure to explore all financial aid and scholarship possibilities, not just those opportunities targeted specifically towards minorities.

The federal government has several major financial aid packages, work-study programs, and grants. You may contact their educational hotline at (800) 433-3243. Or log on to their website at **www.ed.gov/finaid.html**.

To find out about the scholarships that target migrant students, check out the website at the Geneseo Migrant Center: **www.migrant.net/scholarships.htm**.

The following is a partial list of financial aid resources specifically for Hispanic students pursuing postsecondary education or graduate studies. Additional information about financial aid opportunities can be obtained from a comprehensive list of scholarships and financial aid links at **www.aspira.org**.

American Geological Institute
(Minority Participation Program Scholarships)
4220 King Street, Alexandria, VA 22302
(703) 379-2480
Contact: Anita Williams
Amount: $500-$1,500
Deadline: February 1st
Level: Undergraduate, Graduate
Field: Earth, Space or Marine Sciences
Website: www.agiweb.org

American Institute of Certified Public Accountants
(Minority Scholarship Program)
1211 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036-8775
(212) 596-6200
Contact: Gregory Johnson
Amount: Up to $2,000 per year
Deadline: July 1; Dec.1
Level: Undergraduate, Graduate
Field: Accounting
Eligibility: Undergraduate study at accredited colleges and universities, U.S. citizen or legal resident.

American Institute of Architects Foundation
(Minority Scholarship Foundation)
1735 New York Avenue NW
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 626-7349
Amount: Varies
Deadline: Dec 1 for nomination; Jan 15 for application
Level: Undergraduate
Field: Architecture

Beca Foundation General Scholarship
Beca Foundation
1070 South Commerce Street, Suite B
San Marcos, California 92069
(619) 489-6978

Hacer Scholarship Program
McDonald's Corporation
Dept. 12
Attn: Manager, Education and Hispanic Communications
1 McDonald's Plaza
Oak Brook, Illinois 60521
(626) 798-9335 or 1-800-736-5219
Amount: $1,000-$2,500
Deadline: March 1st
Level: Undergraduate
Field: Any
Eligibility: Enrolled as full-time student at an eligible institution, in need of financial assistance, and must be a U.S. citizen or resident.

Hispanic Designers Inc. Scholarship
1000 Thomas Jefferson Street NW, Suite #310
Washington, D.C. 20007
(202) 337-9636
Contact: Peggy Edwards
Amount: $2,500-$5,000
Deadline: Varies
Level: Undergraduate
Field: Fashion Design
Eligibility: Open to Hispanic students who are enrolled in an accredited fashion design school. Must be an active student with at least a 2.5 GPA.

Hispanic College Fund (HCF)
One Thomas Circle, NW, Suite 375
Washington, D.C. 20005
Contact: Adam Chavarria
Deadline: April 15
Level: Undergraduate
Field: Any
Eligibility: Must have been accepted or be enrolled as a full-time undergraduate student at an accredited institution of higher education actively seeking an academic discipline leading to a career in business. Different majors acceptable. GPA of 3.0 or better.

Jose Marti Scholarship Challenge Grant Fund
Florida Department of Education
Attn: Office of Student Financial Assistance
1344 Florida Education Center
Tallahassee, Florida 32399-0400
(850) 488-4095
Contact: Mrs. Silvia Arena
Amount: $2,000 per year
Deadline: April 1
Level: Undergraduate
Field: Any
Eligibility: Enrolled as full-time student at an eligible institution, in need of financial assistance, and must be a U.S. citizen or resident.

La Sed Scholarship
Latin Americans for Social and Economic Development
Attn: Youth Program
7150 West Vernor
Detroit, Michigan 48209
(313) 841-1430

Latin American Professional Women's Association Scholarship Program
Latin American Professional Women's Assoc.
P.O. Box 31532
Los Angeles, California 90031
(213) 227-9060

League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC)
LULAC National Educational Services Center, Inc.
(LULAC) 1133 20th Street NW, Suite 750
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 408-0060
Contact: Maritza Coleman, Special Program Coordinator
Amount: Varies
Deadline: March 31
Level: Undergraduate and Graduate
Field: LNESC offers a number of scholarship opportunities for Hispanic students.
Eligibility: Call for more information.

Mexican American Women's National
Association (MANA)
1101 17th Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 833-0060

National Hispanic Scholarship Fund Program
National Hispanic Scholarship Fund
Attn: Selection Committee
P.O. Box 728
San Fransico, California 94948
Amount: minimum $500
Deadline: October 15
Level: Undergraduate, Graduate
Eligibility: Must be of Hispanic background, U.S. citizen or permanent resident, must be enrolled as a full-time student at a college or university, minimum GPA of 2.5, and needs to fill out an application.

National Association of Hispanic Journalist
(NAHJ)
Scholarship Department
1193 National Press Building
Washington, D.C. 20045
(202) 662-7145
Contact: Anna Lopez
Amount: Varies
Deadline: February 7
Eligibility: NAHJ offers scholarships to Hispanic students who are interested in studying journalism. Send a self-addressed, stamped legal-size envelope with the request for an application.

Other Scholarship Information Sources

ASPIRA's Financial Aid Resource Guide for Students Interested in the Health Professions, developed by Hilda Crespo and Nadine Cid, 1994

The Complete Scholarship Book, Student Services Inc. Sourcebooks, 1996.

Hispanic Americans Information Directory, 1994-1995 Gale Research

Minority Financial Aid Directory by Lemuel Berry; Kendall/Hunt, 1995

Financial Aid for Minorities in Education: includes six booklets; to request a copy mail Garrett Park Press a note/letter with your name and address with money order and the copy of the publication you wish to receive. Each one costs $5.95 plus $1.50 for shipping and handling. The entire packet is $30.00 plus the $1.50 for shipping and handling. Their address is:

Garrett Park Press
P.O. Box 190B
Garrett Park, Maryland 20896
Phone: (301) 946-2553

Financial Aid for Minorities: Award Open to Students with any Major
Financial Aid for Minorities in Business and Law
Financial Aid for Minorities in Education
Financial Aid for Minorities in Engineering and Science
Financial Aid for Minorities in Health Fields
Financial Aid for Minorities in Journalism/ Mass Communications
The Scholarship Guide for Hispanics College Financial Assistance

Internet sites that may be helpful are

fastWeb
www.fastweb.com

Saludos Web—
Scholarship & Internships for Hispanics
www.saludos.com/ed.html

www.pathtoscholarships.com

References

Flores, J. L. (1994). *Facilitating Secondary Outcomes for Mexican Americans*, ERIC Digest, Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, www.ncbe.gwu.edu

Morse, S., Hammer, P. (1998). *Migrant Students Attending College: Facilitating Their Success*, ERIC Digest, Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, www.ncbe.gwu.edu

Chapter 12 At-a-Glance

Chapter 12 contains information on additional resources that are available to you and your students. There are many federally-funded organizations charged with the mission of supporting the efforts of educators of migrant and culturally and linguistically diverse students and their families. These agencies have a wealth of cost-free resources and can assist you in your search for additional help and/or information. This chapter also features suggestions of online resources for both students and teachers.

Resources and references specific to each section of the *Help! Kit* appear at the end of each chapter.

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CHAPTER 12:

Technical Assistance and Resources

Organizations / Institutions Serving Linguistic and Cultural Minorities

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE) is funded by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) to collect, analyze, and disseminate information relating to the effective education of linguistically and culturally diverse learners in the U.S. NCBE provides information through its worldwide website and produces a bi-weekly news bulletin, *Newsline*, and manages a topical electronic discussion group, NCBE Roundtable. NCBE is operated by The George Washington University, Graduate School of Education and Human Development.

NCBE
The George Washington University
Center for the Study of Language & Education
2011 Eye Street NW, Suite 200
Washington, D.C. 20006
Phone: (202) 467-0867, (800) 531-9347
Fax: (202) 467-4283 (within D.C. area)
E-mail: askncbe@ncbe.gwu.edu
Website: www.ncbe.gwu.edu

The Migrant Education Program

Migrant Education Programs support high-quality and comprehensive educational programs for migratory children to address disruptions in schooling and other problems that result from repeated moves. States use funds to ensure that migratory children are provided with appropriate educational services (including support services) that address their special needs in a coordinated and efficient manner; to ensure that migratory children have the opportunity to meet the same challenging state content standards and challenging state student performance standards that all children are expected to meet; to design programs to help migratory children overcome academic, cultural, and language barriers, social isolation, health-related problems, and other factors that hinder academic achievement; to prepare such children to make a successful transition to postsecondary education or employment; and to ensure that migratory children benefit from state and local systemic reforms.

Services can be provided to children from preschool through grade 12 or to children up to age 22. Funds are allocated to states on the basis of a formula, which takes into account the numbers of migratory children resident in each state and state-per-pupil expenditure. There is a priority for services to migratory children who are failing, or most at risk of failing, to meet the state's challenging state content standards and challenging state student performance standards and to children whose education has been interrupted during the regular school year.

The goals of the Office of Migrant Education are as follows:

- To improve coordination among all states to help improve educational outcomes for migrant children
- To foster partnerships between state directors, federal agencies, and other organizations in order to improve coordination of services to migrant families
- To ensure that migrant children have access to services to assist in overcoming cultural and language barriers, health-related problems, and other challenges that place children at risk for completing their education

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Migrant Education
FOB #6 Room 3E329
400 Maryland Ave., SW
Washington, D.C. 20202-6135
Phone: (202) 260-1164
Website: www.ed.gov/offices/OESE/MEP/aboutus.html

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
4646 40th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016-1859
Phone: (202) 362-0700
Fax: (202) 362-7204
Website: www.cal.org

CAL is a nonprofit organization that specializes in language issues. It publishes papers, monographs, and books. (It houses the ERIC Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics.) It provides services such as teacher training and conducts research.

National Migrant Education Hotline
c/o ESCORT
304 Bugbee Hall
SUNY College at Oneonta
Oneonta, New York 13820-4015
Website: www.escort.org

Teachers who work with children of migrant farmworkers ought to know about the National Migrant Education Hotline and inform their farmworker students and parents about its benefits. The hotline, funded by the U.S. Office of Migrant Education and operated by ESCORT, provides a toll-free number for migrant farmworkers and their families to call anywhere in the country for assistance. Calls are routed to designated contact sites depending on their origination, and trained specialists respond to calls. The intent of the hotline is to empower migrant families to enroll their children in school, to receive migrant education services as they travel, and to locate other support services related to health, housing, legal aid, clothing, food and transportation. For more information, contact ESCORT at (800) 451-8058.

ESCORT
304 Bugbee Hall
SUNY College at Oneonta
Oneonta, NY 13820-4015
Phone: 800-451-8058
Fax: 607-436-3606
Website: www.escort.org

ESCORT provides technical assistance on all issues related to migrant students and their families. At their online website, they offer the *Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kits* for Primary Teachers and for Teachers of Young Adults. They also host a national toll-free number that connects farmworkers with the migrant education program in their current state. Call ESCORT to obtain copies of this secondary *Help! Kit*.

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)
1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, D.C. 20005
Phone: 202-898-1829
Website: www.nabe.org

A membership organization for people interested in bilingual education. NABE publishes a journal and other publications, has an annual meeting, and offers online services.

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA)
U.S. Department of Education
Room 5082 Switzer Building
600 Independence Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202
Phone: 202-205-5463
Fax: 202-205-8737
Website: www.ed.gov/offices/OBEMLA

The U.S. Government's arm with responsibility for issues and programs related to language-minority children. OBEMLA funds The Bilingual Clearinghouse, which publishes monographs and runs an online service.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages(TESOL)
1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300
Alexandria, VA 22314
Phone: 703-836-0774
Fax: 703-836-7864
Website: www.tesol.edu

A membership organization for ESL and bilingual teachers. TESOL publishes several journals and a newsletter, maintains online services, and advocates for ESL students, teachers, and parents.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence
University of California College Eight, #201
1156 High St.
Santa Cruz, CA 95064
Phone: 831-459-3500, *Fax:* 831-459-3502
E-mail: crede@cats.ucsc.edu
Website: www.crede.ucsc.edu

CREDE's research and development focuses on critical issues in the education of linguistic and cultural minority students and those placed at risk by factors of race, poverty, and geographic location.

Texas Migrant Interstate Program (TMIP)
P.O. Box Y
Pharr, TX 78577
(800) 292-7006
Fax: (956) 702-6058

The Texas Migrant Interstate Program provides technical assistance to migrant education programs across the U.S. It facilitates interstate coordination of services to maximize the full use of available resources for program development and enhancement of services to migrant students. The TMIP objectives are

- Interstate coordination
- Graduation enhancement
- Secondary credit accrual
- Capacity-building for migrant parents

Teacher Training

Gailbraith, P., & Anstrom, K. (1995). *Peer Coaching: An Effective Staff Development Model for Educators of Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students.* Washington, D.C.: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE).

Hainer, E. Violand, et al. (1990). *Integrating Learning Styles and Skills in the ESL Classroom: An Approach to Lesson Planning.* Washington, D.C.: NCBE.

Hamayan, E.V., & Perlman, R. (1990). *Helping Language-Minority Students after They Exit from Bilingual/ ESL Programs: A Handbook for Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: NCBE.

Kagan, S. (1990). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers.* San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for Teachers.

Leighton, M. S., Hightower, A. M., & Wrigley, P. G. (1995). *Model Strategies in Bilingual Education: Professional Development*, Policy Studies Associates, Washington, D.C.

Milk, R. D. (Fall 1990). Preparing ESL and Bilingual Teachers for Changing Roles: Immersion for Teachers of LEP Children. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(3), 407-426.

Milk, R., et al. (1992). *Re-thinking the Education of Teachers of Language Minority Children: Developing Reflective Teachers for Changing Schools.*

Sakash, K., & Rodriguez-Brown, F. V. (1995). *Teamworks: Mainstream and Bilingual/ESL Teacher Collaboration.* Washington, D.C.: NCBE.

Torres-Guzman, M.E., & Goodwin, L.A. (1995). *Mentoring Bilingual Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: NCBE.

Legal Framework for Serving Limited English Proficient Students

Improving America's Schools Act: Title I: Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standards. (1994). Washington, D.C.: NCBE.

Improving America's Schools Act: Title VII: Bilingual Education, Language Enhancement, and Language Acquisition Programs. (1994). Washington, D.C.: NCBE.

Lyons, J. J. (1992). *Legal Responsibilities of Education Agencies Serving National Origin Language-Minority Students.* Washington, D.C.: The Mid-Atlantic Equity Center.

Selected ESL Software

QuickTalk
Publisher: Educational Activities
Level: Beginning for: All except HE
Special use: Literacy.

Reading Adventure 1-ESL
Publisher: Queue, Inc.
Level: Intermediate for: K-9.
Special use: elementary, bilingual

Reading Adventure 2-ESL
Publisher: Queue, Inc.
Level: Intermediate for: K–9.

The Rosetta Stone
Publisher: Fairfield Language Technologies
Level: Beginning for: All.

Seasons
Publisher: Discis Knowledge Research
Level: Intermediate for: 7-12.

Triple PlayPlus!
Publisher: Syracuse Language Systems
Level: Beginning.

Village
Publisher: CALL-IS Macintosh Library. Also ftp from archive.merit.edu or gopher from CELIA
Level: Intermediate.

Where in the World/USA/Europe/America's Past/Time is Carmen Sandiego?
Publisher: Broderbund
Level: Intermediate, comes with the World Atlas as a reference for student use.

Online Resources for Education for Teachers

www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes
This site provides links to self-study quizzes for students in the areas of: grammar, places, homonyms, vocabulary, reading, and writing.

www.classroom.net
"Classroom Connect" for K-12 educators; resources include newsletters, videos, books, training systems, and conferences.

www.eslcafe.com
This site called "Dave's ESL Café" has information on lessons, resources, and research as well as a forum for specific questions and answers.

www.eslpartyland.com
This site offers a wide variety of links for students and teachers. Good site for getting information on activities to do with beginning-level English language learners.

www.studyweb.com/links/273.html
This site offers a wealth of resources and sample lessons for ESL students.

Online Resources for Students

Mexico Student Teacher Resource Center
http://northcoast.com/~spdtom
This site posts research on Mexican history. Its main users are high school and college students looking for information for papers. The site is organized into various categories: Cortes, the Revolution, the Aztec, Diaz, French intervention, graphics, and research help. It also includes a message board and a conference/meetings calendar.

http://ns3.azteca.net/aztec
The award-winning "Azteca" website contains information accumulated especially for Mexicans, Chicanos, and Mexican-Americans. It features current events, a wide range of cultural information, and history.

http://lib.nmsu.edu/subject/bord/latino.html
This site is called "Andanzas al Web Latino" and provides an impressive compendium of links with such titles as: Major Latino Gateways, Gateways to Latin America, and cultural and political gateways.

www.quepasa.com
This is a bilingual commercial site that provides information on current events, entertainment, health, the latino world and more.

www.uiuc.edu/ro/aem/periodicos.html
This site provides links for 75 newspapers from Mexico.

http://espanol.yahoo.com
This is the yahoo.com search engine in Spanish and provides links to Spanish-speaking countries around the world.

www.imjuventud.gob.mx
This is the official site for youth sponsored by the Mexican national government. It is the home page for the "Instituto Mexicano de La Juventud" and features a wide range of initiatives and information for Mexican teenagers.

Comprehensive Regional Assistance Center Network

Title XIII of the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) created 15 Comprehensive Centers to improve the integration and effectiveness of technical assistance services. As programs are implemented under IASA, the Comprehensive Centers' services are expected to help schools and school districts focus on improving opportunity for all children to meet challenging state content and student performance standards. The Centers' services focus on assisting IASA grantees in

- Improving the quality of instruction, curricula, assessment, and other aspects of school reform
- Meeting the needs of the children served under IASA, including children in high-poverty schools, migratory children, immigrant children, children with limited-English proficiency, neglected or delinquent children, homeless children and youth, Indian children, children with disabilities, and, where applicable, Alaska Native children and Native Hawaiian children
- Implementing high-quality professional development activities for teachers, administrators, pupil services personnel, other school staff, and parents
- Improving the quality of bilingual education, including programs that emphasize English and native language proficiency and promote multicultural understanding
- Coordinating services and programs to meet the needs of students so that they can fully participate in their school's educational program
- Expanding the involvement and participation of parents in the education of their children
- Meeting the special needs of the students and local education agencies in urban and rural areas

Following are some Comprehensive Centers that are particularly helpful in offering professional development and resources that focus on the needs of English language learners and migrant students:

Region II—New York Technical Assistance Center (NYTAC)
The Metropolitan Center for Urban Education
New York University
82 Washington Square East, Suite 72
New York, NY 10003
800-4NYU-224 or 212-998-5100
212-995-4199 fax
www.nyu.edu/education/metrocenter/nytac/nytac.html

Region III—Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania
Region III Comprehensive Center
The George Washington University
Center for Equity and Excellence in Education
1730 North Lynn Street, Suite 401
Arlington, VA 22209
703-528-3588 or 800-925-3223
703-528-5973 fax
www.ceee.gwu.edu

Region IV—Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia
Region IV Comprehensive Center at Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Inc.
1700 N. Moore St., Suite 1275
Arlington, VA 22209
800-624-9120 or 703-276-0200
703-276-0266 fax
www.ael.org/cac

Region V—Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
3330 Causeway Boulevard, Suite 430
Metairie, LA 70002
504-838-6861 or 800-644-8671
504-831-5242 fax
www.sedl.org/secac

Region VIII—Texas
STAR Center
Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA)
5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78228-1190
210-684-8180 or 888-FYI-STAR (888-394-7827)
210-684-5389 fax
www.starcenter.org

Region XI—Northern California. Includes all counties except Imperial, Inyo, Los Angeles, Mono, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and San Diego
WestEd
730 Harrison Street
San Francisco, CA 94107-1242
415-565-3009 or 800-645-3276
415-565-3012 fax
www.wested.org/cc

Region XIV—Florida, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands
Educational Testing Service
1000 N. Ashley Drive
Tampa, FL 33602
800-756-9003
813-228-0632 fax
www.ets.org

Research

ERIC® Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools Cultural Resources for Mexican American Education
by Timothy Collins & Robert Hagerman
EDO RC 99-4 (December 1999)

Even though Mexican Americans are the fastest-growing ethnic group in the U.S., their history and literature receive limited attention in schools. Incorporating Mexican American culture and history into the curriculum should help minimize cultural myopia characteristic of many students and cultural alienation that frequently contributes to school failure by Mexican American students (Escamilla, 1996). This digest summarizes the contents of a number of helpful resources, most of which are online, and includes both academic and commercial sites. (Access this article at: www.ael.org/eric/digests/edorc994.htm)

Beginning Library Research on Chicano/ Latino Studies
www-library.stanford.edu/depts/ssrg/adams/ shortcu/chic.html
Stanford University Libraries has extensive collections on the historical and contemporary experiences of Hispanic Americans, particularly Mexican Americans. This site is designed primarily for the Stanford community, but the bibliography of reference books might be quite helpful. The listings are categorized by encyclopedias and handbooks, bibliographies, periodical indexes, biographical resources, and statistical sources.

The Borderlands Encyclopedia
www.utep.edu/border/inf.html
The Borderlands Encyclopedia is a Web-based multimedia instructional resource on contemporary issues of the United States-Mexico border. It is also available on CD-ROM. Content areas include culture and media, economics and business, education and training, family life and population groups, government and politics, and health and environment. This site also maintains links to other resources.

Curriculum Materials

¡Del Corazón!
http://nmaa-ryder.si.edu/webzine
The National Museum of American Art and the Texas Education Network have partnered to produce ¡del Corazón!, an interactive Web-based magazine that draws on the museum's rich Latino art collection. A distinctive graphic icon identifies each of its four main topics: artists, activities, themes, and comments. Each issue features the work of several Latino artists, along with audio and video clips. K-12 curricular activities are included, but teachers are encouraged to use the materials provided to create their own lessons and activities. Teachers can draw upon the various themes that run throughout the artwork.

México, Universidad de Guadalajara
http://webdemexico.com.mx
This Spanish-language site provides links to a variety of Mexican resources, including art, history, science, and religion.

Virtual Forum of Mexican Culture
www.arts-history.mx/index2.html
This site is a showcase of Mexican culture in both English and Spanish, with galleries featuring anthropology, archaeology, and contemporary and modern art. It also includes cultural institutions, such as museums, galleries, libraries, and contemporary dance companies, as well as photography, literature, a writer's dictionary, cultural projects, and books.

Publishers

Bilingual Review/Press
http://mati.eas.asu.edu:8421
The Bilingual Review/Press has published the works of Hispanic writers since 1974. Although the press features some bilingual and Spanish-only titles, most books are by or about U.S. Hispanics, and most are written in English. In addition to new works, classics of Chicana and Chicano fiction are available through the Clasicos Chicanos/Chicano Classics imprint. The site does not offer online ordering.

Center for the Study of Books in Spanish for Children and Adolescents
http://coyote.csusm.edu/campus_centers/csb
The center, located at California State University, San Marcos, provides links to publishers and a search engine for Spanish-language books for toddlers through twelfth-graders. The center sponsors an annual conference and holds summer reading workshops, which can be taken for college credit.

Cinco Puntos Press
www.cincopuntos.com
Cinco Puntos Press publishes books for children and adults, including fiction, nonfiction, and poetry.

Current Events/Popular Culture

Azteca Website
http://ns3.azteca.net/aztec
The award-winning Azteca website contains information collected especially for Mexicans, Chicanos, and Mexican-Americans. It features current events, cultural information, and history.

Hispanic Online
www.hisp.com
This commercial site offers the Latino community chat rooms, events, issues of interest, message boards, and news. It is owned by *Hispanic Magazine*, a monthly for and about Latinos with a national circulation of 250,000. There are numerous links to cultural sites, including visual and performing arts, history and ethnicity, and literature and books. Latino entertainment links include comedy and humor, movies with Latino actors or themes, music, and television.

La Jornada
www.jornada.unam.mx
La Jornada is a Mexican newspaper available online. It will be particulary helpful to students and teachers who are interested in current events and how they are viewed from a Mexican perspective.

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Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
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Author: Pamela Wrigley

Corporate Source: ESCORT, SUNY College at Oneonta, Oneonta, NY 13820

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